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ABSTRACT

This manual provides an overview of the contents of a program focusing on supervisors' communication skills and strategies that enhance teachers' abilities to reflect, learn, and apply insights to their own actions when teaching. It is intended for principals, supervisors, mentors, department chairs, master teachers, teacher educators, peer coaches, and other personnel involved in classroom supervision. It includes, in the skills section of the program presentation, an explanation of the conferencing skills of trust building, questioning, responding, and empowering. The first Practice Program includes an edited sixth-grade math/art lesson with the accompanying teacher and supervisor pre- and postconferences. Practice Program II is an edited high school chemistry class with the accompanying teacher and supervisor pre- and postconferences. The transcripts of these practice programs are annotated with comments from the trainers and supervisors. The manual also contains outlines and trainer notes for an extensive sequence of workshops and the handouts and activities necessary for conducting successful training sessions. Transcripts for the tapes of Practice I and Practice II are included along with comments about the interaction to facilitate their use in the workshop. (JD)

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Another Set of Eyes

Conferencing Skills

Trainer's Manual

ASCD Supervision Series

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This manual is adapted from *The Art of Cognitive Coaching: Supervision for Intelligent Teaching* by Arthur Costa and Robert Garmston (Sacramento, Calif.: The Institute for Intelligent Behavior, 1987) and *Supervision for Intelligent Teaching: A Course Syllabus* (Orangedale, Calif.: Search Models Unlimited, 1987).

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The Workshops

Before You Begin

Change Can Be Rapid

This is Lisa Brown's sixth year of teaching 3rd grade. She is skillful with children and knows the curriculum well. However, parents often complain that her classroom environment is lackluster and uninviting. The principal notes that Lisa no longer spends time before and after school on planning. In the classroom, she seems to repeat lessons from previous years without giving much thought to what she is teaching. Although she started out being involved in school activities, she has stopped volunteering, and her colleagues are beginning to resent her absence. The principal decided to intervene. In a very short time, Lisa was noticed discussing, in excited tones, a new classroom activity. She volunteered to help a new teacher and she was looking for some courses on cooperative learning to take during the summer.

Steve Ullrey teaches high school biology. Last fall he described many of his students as disrespectful and undisciplined. He wanted the vice-principal to come down hard on students he sent frequently to the office. During preliminary discussions, the vice-principal realized that Steve needed better classroom management procedures. Steve believed the problem to be the "low quality" of students, and he became defensive when the vice-principal made suggestions. The vice-principal initiated a series of observations and a different way of talking with Steve about his teaching. Almost immediately, Steve began soliciting classroom management ideas and inviting the vice-principal to observe and coach him as he experimented with new strategies.

These two supervisors used a set of strategies that are efficient and circumvent the trap of the "resistant teacher." The efficient supervisor needs tools and techniques for guiding teachers to make rapid teacher-directed changes. When a teacher believes in a plan of action because he or she helped develop it, the plan is more likely to be put into action immediately and meet with success. And the teacher is empowered as a professional.

Brief Overview

This program focuses on supervisors' communication skills and strategies that enhance teachers' abilities to reflect, learn, and apply insights to their own actions when teaching. Behaviors and language skills that allow supervisors to be worthy of trust* are central to the program.

With a trusting relationship, a supervisor can become a mediator and enhance teacher thinking. The supervisor's questions and responses are designed to elicit specific cognitive functions that produce data, relationships, and generalizations about the lesson. Teachers consistently report that such questions help clarify their own thinking before, during, and after teaching. A successful conference encourages teachers to spontaneously make commitments to change behaviors and strategies based on self-analysis. The assertion is that supervision should emphasize not only the overt behaviors of teaching but the teacher's inner-thinking processes as well. Such a focus on enhancing teachers' cognitive abilities empowers teachers and, in turn, increases student learning.

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*A glossary at the end of this section contains a collection of terms and their definitions. The first time a glossary word appears in these directions, you will find it underlined. This is your clue to refer to the glossary for more information if necessary.

Fixing the Lesson Is Not the Objective

The basis for some supervisory programs assumes the supervisor is an expert about teaching and can impart that wisdom to the teacher. Operating under this premise, a supervisor can view his or her role as a "fixer." We propose, however, that the supervisor view his or her role as a mediator of teacher thinking. In this role, the supervisor is not interested in creating a perfect lesson but in exercising and enhancing the thinking that goes on behind the teacher's actions. This source ultimately installs the skills and habits of self-coaching and a continuing career-long focus on creating excellence in lessons. The supervisor's questions and responses are designed to encourage, clarify, and probe so as to discover the thinking behind teacher decisions. On the practice programs, you will notice that the supervisors are satisfied with responses that demonstrate precise teacher cognition, and they do not spend time describing ways a lesson could be even better. As a matter of fact, the supervisors do not do this because they know that "fixing" a teacher is counterproductive to the goal of helping the teacher become self-supervising. By the way they ask questions and respond, the supervisors help the teachers to prescribe for themselves their own ways to improve what they do.

The Program

Introduction

This training program is designed with the expectation that those viewing it are already knowledgeable in a clinical supervision model of conferencing. The intent of this program is to provide training in conferencing skills appropriate for peer coaching and/or clinical supervision when teacher self-evaluation is clearly the goal. It is not meant to be an introduction to the clinical supervision model of pre- and postconferencing. It could, however, be used to illustrate the clinical supervision model if the facilitator chooses to design a training program to meet the needs of the group before beginning. In either case, this program can be used as a review to increase others' awareness of supervisory practices. The first article in **The Readings** will provide participants with background information they need to better understand the program.

Program Goals

This training program has three major goals for the viewer:

- To understand the importance of trust and rapport in the teacher/supervisor relationship and be able to put into practice actions that develop it.
- To understand how a supervisor's language tools can contribute to teacher empowerment, and be able to use language tools of questioning, responding, and empowering to guide teachers to grow in their ability to analyze, evaluate, and modify their own teaching.
- To promote the practice and refinement of these conferencing skills: Trust Building, Questioning, Responding, and Empowering.

Intended Audience

This skills program is intended for principals, supervisors, mentors, department chairs, master teachers, teacher educators, peer coaches, and other personnel involved in classroom supervision. *Another Set of Eyes: Conferencing Skills* might also be shown to teachers, student teachers, parents, board members, and others to increase awareness of supervisory practices and skills. *Practice Programs I* and *II* are valuable to teachers because they provide examples of real teachers' responses to a supervisor using the techniques outlined in the program.

Organization of Video Programs

This program includes three parts: the skills program and two practice programs. It includes presentation and explanation of the conferencing skills of Trust Building, Questioning, Responding, and Empowering. *Practice Program I* includes an edited 6th grade math/art lesson and the accompanying teacher/principal pre- and postconferences. *Practice Program II* is an edited high school chemistry class with the accompanying teacher/supervisor pre- and postconferences. Transcripts of the pre- and postconferences for *Practice Programs I* and *II* have been provided to help you locate specific examples. The transcripts are annotated with comments from the trainers and supervisors.

How to Use This Manual

This manual provides an overview of the content of the program. It also contains outlines and trainer notes for an extensive sequence of work-

shops and the handouts and activities necessary for conducting successful training sessions. Transcripts for the tapes *Practice I* and *Practice II* are provided along with comments about the interaction to facilitate their use in the workshop.

By carefully following the video program and doing the activities at the stop points, participants have an opportunity to learn and practice the techniques and strategies. Discussion among participants will also increase transfer of skills into action.

Preparation for the Workshops

Introduction

These materials are provided to help the trainer prepare and lead a workshop built around *Another Set of Eyes: Conferencing Skills*. It is preferable to schedule this workshop in four 1½-hour sessions plus a microteaching session of 2¾ hours. The practice programs should be scheduled for viewing in two 1½-hour sessions.

Objectives

By the end of the workshop, the participants will be able to:

- Describe three rapport-building skills, demonstrate these skills in a simulation, and identify presuppositions in language.
- Develop questions that direct teacher thinking as it relates to the four phases of the teaching cycle: plan, teach, reflect/analyze, and apply.
- Describe two supervisor responding behaviors and demonstrate these behaviors in a simulation.
- Describe three ways supervisors can structure their responses to teacher statements to empower the teacher.
- Increase their repertoire of responses when teachers make statements that lack clarity, misplace responsibility for learning, or are limiting.
- Refine their ability to self-evaluate their use of the skills of Trust Building, Questioning, Responding, and Empowering.

Role of the Trainer

A trainer could be a staff developer, principal, central office administrator, or teacher. It is essential that the trainer have some background in strategies and techniques of effective supervision and be able to model the behaviors described in the video program. The trainer should be respected by staff members, well organized, and able to communicate in a manner that supports others' growth needs. The major responsibilities of the trainer are to:

- View the video programs and become thoroughly familiar with their contents. Your understanding will be greatly increased if you take time to study all three videos before leading this workshop and practice supervision conferences using skills identified in these videos.
- Read the Trainer's Manual and related articles carefully.
- Decide on the type of workshop best suited to the time available.
- Arrange for a training site large enough to allow for participant interaction and small-group sessions.
- Arrange for the duplication of handouts and readings.
- Distribute notices about each session.
- Guide participants through the session activities: start and stop the video at specified intervals, direct and monitor discussion, and lead participants in practice activities.
- Arrange optional follow-up meetings so participants have opportunities to talk about their experiences applying techniques from the video programs to actual supervision cycles.

Before the Workshop

In advance of session one, distribute copies of the first article in the **Readings** section (The Clin-

ical Supervision Model: Supervision in Historic Perspective) and ask that participants read it before coming to the first session.

Distribute a notice describing the workshop. Include topics, dates, times, and location. You should note that as part of the microteaching session, which is included in the workshop, participants will plan and observe brief lessons with partners and teach or observe these lessons with other participants. They will therefore need to select a lesson objective and bring teaching materials with them. The objective they select can be on an elementary, secondary, or adult level. Often participants have a special skill or hobby such as sailing, hiking, camping, speaking a foreign language, or photography that is an excellent subject for a lesson.

Reserve a room for the session. It will need to be large enough to allow for small-group activities at the stop points on the video. Arrange tables and chairs to facilitate video viewing and small-group discussion. You also need to:

- Obtain a VCR, chalkboard or easel, pads, and pens.
- Duplicate all handouts.
- Write the objectives and agenda on a chart or chalkboard.
- Arrange for refreshments.
- Create the agenda and determine the times for breaks or lunch.

Time Guide for Video and Activities

The *Conferencing Skills* program (40 total minutes of video) is organized into four main categories of skills: Trust Building, Questioning, Responding, and Empowering.

We recommend that you plan five workshop sessions to allow ample time for participants to learn and integrate these skills into practice. Allow 1½ hours each for the workshops featuring Trust-Building, Questioning, Responding, and Empowering Skills, and 2¾ hours for the microteaching session.

The times listed here are the actual times required for viewing each section of the video and suggested times for completing the activities in each workshop. You will need to add an appropriate amount of time for additional discussion.

Exercises are found in the **Handout** section in sequence. They are labeled with the initials of the workshop session for which their use is intended. (For example, TB-1 is the handout you would use for the first exercise in the Trust-Building session.)

Skills Workshop	Time
Another Set of Eyes: Conferencing Skills	**40 minutes**
Workshop Session One: Trust Building (1½ hours)	
Warm up TB-1, TB-2	12 minutes
Video Segment	10 minutes
Exercise TB-3	30 minutes
Video Segment	4 minutes
Exercise TB-4	5 minutes
Exercise TB-5	15 minutes
Summary	10 minutes
Workshop Session Two: Questioning (1½ hours)	
Warm up Q-1	10 minutes
Video Segment	7 minutes
Exercise Q-2	15 minutes
Exercise Q-3,Q-4,Q-5,Q-6	25 minutes
Summary	15 minutes
Workshop Session Three: Responding (1½ hours)	
Warm up R-1	12 minutes
Video Segment	6 minutes
Exercise R-2	15 minutes
Exercise R-3	30 minutes
Summary	15 minutes

Skills Workshop (continued)	Time
Workshop Session Four: Empowering (1½ hours)	
Warm up	15 minutes
Video Segment	12 minutes
Application Exercise E-2, E-3, E-4	50 minutes
Summary	10 minutes
Workshop Session Five: Microteaching (2¾ hours)	
Warm up	15 minutes
Microteaching Activity M-1	2 hours
Summary M-2	15 minutes

Sessions Using Practice Programs

Additional sessions can be scheduled for viewing the *Practice I* and *Practice II* tapes. Each program runs approximately 50 minutes, and each contains a teacher/supervisor preconference, the actual lesson, and a teacher/supervisor postconference.

Practice I: Elementary	(50 minutes total)
Preconference	(10 minutes)
Lesson	(25 minutes)
Postconference	(13 minutes)

Practice II: Secondary	(50 minutes total)
Preconference	(13 minutes)
Lesson	(20 minutes)
Postconference	(16 minutes)

Workshop Outline

This workshop outline details the five training sessions that accompany viewing of *Another Set of Eyes: Conferencing Skills*. Of these five sessions, four are 1½ hours long, and the fifth lasts 2½ hours. Additional sessions to allow for viewing the practice programs can be scheduled as time permits.

Workshop Sessions

Trust-Building Skills	1½ hours
Questioning Skills	1½ hours
Responding Skills	1½ hours
Empowering Skills	1½ hours
Microteaching	2¾ hours
Practice I (Elementary)	50 minutes
Practice II (Secondary)	50 minutes

Workshop Session One: Trust-Building (1½ hours)

Note: Trainers will want to spend some time at the beginning of the first session orienting participants to the purposes and organization of the training sessions.

1. **Warm-Up Activity** (TB-1 and TB-2, 12 minutes)

   Present the objective and agenda to the participants.

   Then distribute TB-2 from the **Handouts**, *Exercise on Trust*, and ask participants to use it to think and make a few notes about someone they trust. After two or three minutes, ask them to compare their notes with a neighbor.

   After three or four minutes, ask the entire group to help you compile a list of characteristics of "the trusted supervisor."

   Ask participants to summarize some of the more important qualities of a supervisor who inspires trust.

   Point out to the group that building trust involves a lot more than good conferencing skills. Still, the use of these skills can enhance the trust that teachers already have in a supervisor.

   Distribute the Note-Taking guide (TB-1) and explain that its use is optional.

2. **Alternate Warm-Up Activity** (12 minutes)

   Design or obtain an activity that allows participants to get to know one another or allows them to share their experiences with conferencing and supervision. For example, have each participant list and share with a partner three supervisory skills they have learned in other workshops, two supervisory skills with which they need more practice, and one way that supervision is like an automobile. The latter can provide humor and a variety of perspectives on supervision.

3. **View the Trust-Building section of the video program** to the first "stop" at the end of the Rapport-Building segment. (10 minutes)

4. **Application Exercise** (TB-3, 30 minutes)

   Distribute the handout TB-3, *Exercise in Rapport Building*. Ask participants to form groups of three and choose roles of teacher, supervisor, and observer. Ask the "supervisors" to conduct a preconference with the "teachers" using Rapport-Building skills. Ask the "observers" to record evidence of Rapport-Building Skills (4 minutes). Complete this exercise as directed on TB-3. This exercise is intended to help participants experience first-hand the value of these skills.

5. **Continue to view the Trust-Building section** of the program with the segments on Presuppositions. (4 minutes)
6. **Application Exercise** (TB-4 and TB-5, 15-20 minutes)

   Distribute the handouts TB-4, *Review of Presuppositions*, and TB-5, *Exercise in Analyzing Presuppositions*. Ask participants to take a few minutes to read TB-4 (5 minutes) before going on to exercise TB-5.

   Ask participants to form different groups of three to complete exercise TB-5. (15 minutes)
7. **Summarizing Activity (10 minutes)**

   Lead a discussion about the content of the program, the readings, and the activities. One format for discussion might be to have the participants: (1) review what they have learned, (2) describe how they will apply these skills on the job, and (3) evaluate their ability to use these skills. (This data will help the facilitator identify areas that will require more in-depth study.)

   Note: Involvement of participants is increased if they are directed to talk in small groups before discussing the topic as an entire group.
8. **Independent Practice**

   Ask participants to practice these skills and be prepared to comment on them in the next session.

   Distribute copies of articles 2 and 3 from the **Readings** section (Trust—Intentions Are the Message and The Goals of Instructional Supervision). Ask participants to read them before the next session.

Workshop Session Two: Questioning (1½ hours)

1. **Warm-Up Activity** (Q-1, 10 minutes)

   Ask participants to form groups of three, review notes from the Trust-Building section of the program, and discuss their experiences using those Trust-Building Skills. Then ask them to share items of special interest with the entire group.

   Distribute the note-taking guide Q-1, *Questions Skills Note-Taking Guide*, found in the handouts, and explain that its use is optional.
2. **View the Questioning section of the video program.** (7 minutes)
3. **Application Exercise** (Q-2, 15 minutes)

   Distribute handout Q-2, *Exercise in Asking Mediational Questions*. Ask participants to form pairs and analyze the language in the questions listed. Consider how the language helps to probe thinking.
4. **Application Exercise** (Q-3, Q-4, Q-5, and Q-6, 20-25 minutes)

   Distribute the handouts Q-3, Q-4, Q-5, and Q-6. Ask participants to refer to the circle graphic (Q-3) and consider the relationship between teacher and supervisor at each stage of the teaching cycle.

   Let them know that the upcoming exercise using Q-4, Q-5, and Q-6 will give them ways to start to create this helping relationship.

   Then ask the participants to form new groups of three to develop questions using forms Q-4, Q-5, and Q-6, and complete the exercise.

   After about 10 to 15 minutes, ask groups to report interesting questions and briefly discuss any thoughts or concerns.
5. **Summary Activity** (15 minutes)

   Lead a discussion about the content of the program, the readings, and the activities. One format for discussion might be to have the participants: (1) review what they have learned, (2) describe how they will apply these skills on the job, and (3) evaluate their ability to use these skills. (This data will help the facilitator identify areas that will require more in-depth study.)
6. **Independent Practice**

   Ask participants to practice using the Questioning Skills in their interactions with teachers and others with whom they come in contact. Remind them to be especially aware of the use of presuppositions.

   Distribute copies of article 4 (*Supervision for Intelligent Teaching*), found in the **Readings** section, and ask participants to read it before the next session.

Workshop Session Three: Responding (1½ hours)

1. **Warm-Up Activity** (R-1, 12 minutes)

   Ask participants to form groups of three and discuss how their use of the Questioning Skills since the last session may have been helpful to a colleague or to themselves. Ask them to share interesting experiences with the entire group.

   Distribute the handout R-1, *Responding Skills Note-Taking Guide*. Explain that its use is optional but may be useful as a review in future sessions.

2. **View the Responding section of the video program.** (6 minutes)
3. **Application Exercise** (R-2, 15 minutes)

   Distribute the handout R-2, *Clarifying Teachers' Statements of Goals and Objectives*, and ask participants to complete it on their own. Further instructions are located on the worksheet.

4. **Application Exercise** (R-3, 30 minutes)

   Distribute the handout R-3, *Small Group Practice on Clarifying Criteria Into Observable Behaviors*.

   Ask participants to form new groups of three, and choose roles of "teacher," "supervisor," and "observer." Complete the exercise as outlined in R-3. Then trade roles and repeat the exercise until each member of the group has had an opportunity to assume each identity.

5. **Summary Activity** (15 minutes)

   In the same groups of three, ask participants to discuss the value of Responding Skills in helping teachers to sharpen plans and clarify intent.

   Lead a discussion about the content of the program, the readings, and the activities. One format for discussion might be to have the participants: (1) review what they have learned, (2) describe how they will apply these skills on the job, and (3) evaluate their ability to use these skills. (This data will help the facilitator identify areas that will require more in-depth study.)

6. **Independent Practice**

   Ask participants to practice using the Responding Skills in preparation for the next session.

   Distribute copies of article 5 (Coaching Teacher Cognition), found in the **Readings** section, and ask participants to read it before the next session.

Workshop Session Four: Empowering (1½ hours)

1. **Warm-up Activity** (E-1, 15 minutes)

   Ask participants to form groups of three and review notes from the Responding section of the program and discuss their experiences using those skills. Then ask them to share items of special interest with the entire group.

   Distribute the handout E-1, *Empowering Skills Note-Taking Guide*. Explain that its use is optional, but it may be useful for review.

2. **View the Empowering section of the video program.** (12 minutes)

   Note to Trainer: Some participants may point out that the example given on the video for Vague Verbs—the word "lazy"—is indeed not a verb. We are using the term Vague Verbs broadly to explain descriptions of student behavior that could be better described specifically. Other vague descriptions would include phrases like:

   I want the students to . . .

   - understand
   - appreciate
   - grasp the notion
   - prepare

3. **Application Exercise** (E-2, E-3, and E-4, 50 minutes)

   Distribute the handouts E-2, *Exercises in Generating Alternatives*, E-3, *Exercises in Accepting Responsibility*, and E-4, *Exercises in Becoming More Precise*.

   Ask participants to form new groups of three and complete the exercises. Instructions for the exercises are located on the worksheets.

4. **Summary Exercise** (10 minutes)

   Ask participants in groups of three how and when they would use the Empowering Skills and how those skills relate to Trust Building, Questioning, and Responding. Ask individuals to share interesting insights with the entire group.

   Lead a discussion about the content of the program, the readings, and the activities. One format for discussion might be to have the participants: (1) review what they have learned, (2) describe how they will apply these skills on the job, and (3) evaluate their ability to use these skills. (This data will help the facilitator identify areas that will require more in-depth study.)

   Note: At this point the trainer has several options:

   - If your purpose is to inform or provide awareness, you could stop the workshop here.
   - If your purpose is to provide participants the opportunity to apply these skills, proceed to the section on Microteaching.
   - If your purpose is to provide viewers with an opportunity to observe conferencing skills applied in actual school settings, refer to the programs *Practice I* and *Practice II*. (Practice program transcripts and comments are provided in the **Handout** section of this manual.)

5. **Independent Practice**

   Note: The Skills Presentation Workshop can conclude with the Empowering section, but if the trainer wants to give participants an opportunity to integrate these skills into practice, the Microteaching section is essential. If you will conduct a Microteaching session, ask each participant to prepare a five-minute "micro" lesson and be prepared to teach it to another participant in the next session.

   Distribute copies of article 6 (Landscapes, Mindscapes, and Reflective Practice in Supervision) found in the **Readings** section, and ask participants to read it before the next session.

Workshop Session Five: Microteaching (2 to 2¾ hours)

Note: Microteaching is a condensed form of teaching under simulated classroom conditions (e.g., you teach a shorter lesson than normal to a very small group, sometimes just one or two other people) for the purpose of analyzing techniques or learning new behaviors.

1. **Warm-up Activity** (15 minutes)

   Ask the participants if they have any unanswered questions about the conferencing skills presented. Ask them to form groups of three and list two concerns they may have and one goal they would like to pursue. Then ask them to describe a supervisory success story. Ask one or two participants to volunteer their stories to the entire group.

2. **Microteaching Activity** (M-1, 2 hours)

   Distribute the handout M-1, Microteaching, to the participants. Ask them to read the explanation of the activity and prepare to work in groups of three. Explain that one cycle of the activity is designed to last 40 minutes. The participants should finish three complete cycles to give each group member a chance to assume each role: teacher, supervisor, and observer. See M-1 for further instructions.

   Note: For this activity, it would be helpful to have several areas for the groups to work in. The Microteaching activity works best in a semiprivate, quiet place.

3. **Summary Activity** (M-2, 15 minutes)

   Ask participants to discuss the value of practice in learning and using new skills. Explain that this is the end of the sessions intended to introduce and teach the conferencing skills of Trust Building, Questioning, Responding, and Empowering.

   Note: The programs *Practice I* and *Practice II* each contain one edited classroom lesson with the teacher/supervisor preconference and postconference. For more in-depth

study of conferencing skills applied in actual classroom settings, please view these programs and study their accompanying transcripts and comments found in the **Handouts** section.

Note: On *Practice II*, the teacher's intensity may appear to some participants to be tension or defensiveness. If viewers comment on this, you may want to explain that Marilyn Tabor is not his regular supervisor. In fact, the two met just hours before the taping. They were chosen for their experience with using conference skills, and were paired for demonstration purposes only. In the postconference, occasional use of paraphrasing was edited out to conserve time. This may make the postconference appear abrupt. This in fact was not the case. It does, however, clearly illustrate the importance of paraphrasing in maintaining warmth, trust, and rapport.

Glossary

autonomy—For the purposes of this workshop, the goal of autonomy is defined as self-supervision or self-coaching. An autonomous teacher is one who habitually engages in critical self-reflection of his or her work, evaluating the decisions made during planning and teaching and self-prescribing changes as appropriate. It does not mean working alone, but instead emphasizes being self-actualized as a teacher.

clinical supervision—First developed by Cogan and Robert Goldhammer in the 1950s, clinical supervision was a nonevaluative supervisory process. It was used to describe a supervisory process in which the supervisors emphasized teacher growth and engaged in discussions and observations related to planning, teaching, and analyzing the lesson. The strategies outlined in this program are refinements of this original model.

cognitive coaching—Developed by Arthur Costa and Robert Garmston in the 1950s, cognitive coaching is a set of strategies designed to enhance the teacher's perceptions, decisions, and intellectual functions during the teaching cycle. This model is based on the belief that these inner thought processes are prerequisite to improving overt instructional behaviors inextricably related to instructional behavior and that improving teacher thought will result in improved teacher teaching decisions and instructional behaviors.

presupposition—A term used to describe the tacit knowledge that a native speaker of a language has about the meaning of a message. For example, if someone said, "Even you could pass that class," native speakers of English would know that you are not a very good student and that the class is not difficult. Neither of these pieces of information is in the surface structure of the message. Rather, they are embedded in the intonation and the underlying meaning of the sentence. Often, presuppositions can be negative. These messages speak directly to the emotions and create resistance and hence a lack of trust.

preconference—A conference in which the supervisor withholds personal judgments and elicits from the teacher the purposes of the lesson, how the teacher measures success, and what the supervisor should observe.

postconference—A conference in which the supervisor withholds personal judgments and facilitates the teacher's recall, analysis, and evaluation of the teaching phases.

rapport—Rapport is present when people are responsive to one another. People are said to have rapport when they see eye to eye, are in harmony, or feel comfortable with each other. The term rapport is used to describe a subjective experience that is behaviorally observable.

trust—This is total of a relationship. It is manifested by confidence in the character, intention, or ability of the other person.

The Handouts

TB-1

Trust-Building Skills
Note-Taking Guide

Trust

- **Rapport Building**
  - Paraphrase Content

    _____

    _____
  - Match Voice Tone & Rate of Speech

    _____

    _____
  - Match Posture & Gesture

    _____

    _____
- **Presupposition**
  - Negative Examples

    _____

    _____
  - Positive Examples

    _____

    _____
  - Observation of Supervisor Questions

    _____

    _____

TB-2

Exercise on Trust

The video program makes the point that to be accepted by teachers, and effective with them, a supervisor has to be trusted. Think of a person with whom you've enjoyed a trusting relationship. What was it about him or her that earned your trust? Please make a few notes about what the person did and said that made you trust him or her.

Now, please talk with the person sitting next to you. Check to see if the characteristics you listed are similar to or different from the characteristics he or she listed.

Based on what you recall about the qualities of people who inspired your trust, make a composite list of characteristics of "the trusted supervisor." What would you put on such a list?

Summarize what you believe are some of the more important qualities of a supervisor who inspires trust.

Building trust involves a lot more than just good conferencing skills. Still, the use of these skills can enhance the trust that teachers already have in you.

TB-3

Exercise in Rapport Building

Preconference (4 minutes)

1. Trios assign roles of teacher, supervisor (or peer coach), and observer.
2. Supervisor conducts preconference with the teacher using rapport-building skills: paraphrase content, match voice tone/rate, and match posture/gesture.
3. Observer records evidence of rapport-building skills.

Debrief (2 minutes)

1. Observer shares data.
2. Supervisor reports which behaviors were conscious and which were unconscious.
3. Teacher gives reaction to behaviors.

Begin the conference again with the same participants in the same roles. This time the supervisor purposely breaks eye contact with the teacher and avoids listening for about 30 seconds. (2 minutes)

Debrief (2 minutes)

1. Observer compares teacher reactions to the attentive supervisor and the unattentive supervisor.
2. Teacher and supervisor give their reactions to their own behavior.

Rotate roles and repeat the above cycle until each trio member has had a chance to play each role. (10 minutes for each additional cycle)

TB-4

Review of Presuppositions

Review before completing the Exercise in Analyzing Presuppositions.

A presupposition is a term used to describe the tacit knowledge that a native speaker of a language has about the meaning of a message. For example, if someone said, "Even you could pass that class," native speakers of English would know that you are not a very good student and that the class is not difficult. Neither of these pieces of information is in the surface structure of the message; rather, each is embedded in the intonation and the underlying meaning of the sentence. Often, presuppositions are negative. These messages speak directly to the emotions and create resistance and hence a lack of trust. Consider the following examples of questions with negative presuppositions:

"Where did you go wrong in planning your lesson?"

Presuppositions:

- You had a problem planning your lesson.
- You know what you did wrong.
- You ought to feel bad about going wrong because wrong means failing.

"If you were to teach this lesson again, wouldn't you want to assess students' readiness for learning?"

Presuppositions:

- You should have assessed students' readiness this time, but you didn't.
- You should agree with me: One should assess students' readiness for learning before teaching.
- I cannot believe you did not realize this fact. (The strength of this message would depend upon the intonation.)

Identifying presuppositions makes it easy to understand why some questions are ineffective means of building teacher trust. Contrast the above questions with the examples below that contain positive presuppositions:

"If you teach this lesson again, will you do anything differently?"

Presuppositions:

- You have a choice about teaching the lesson again.
- You have a choice about what you will do.
- You are the judge about changes that might be made.

"So when you review the students' questions, what do they tell you about their readiness for learning?"

Presuppositions:

- Data containing student questions is available.
- You review data on student's questions.
- Reviewing data will cause you to make conclusions about readiness for learning.
- You are capable of establishing a causal relationship between student behavior and readiness.

"As you planned the lesson, what did you hope for in terms of student behavior?"

Presuppositions:

- You planned your lesson today.
- As you plan you envision student behavior.
- You can compare intended and actual behaviors.

Notice the contrast between the negative, limiting intentions of the first two examples and the positive, empowering intentions of the last three examples. Knowing how to evaluate your own conferencing skills for presuppositions is a valuable tool and should be used when deciding how to ask questions in pre- or postconferences.

TB-5

Exercise in Analyzing Presuppositions

Trios: Identify the presupposition in each question. Describe its possible impact on the teacher's (a) feelings and (b) cognition. In each case, write an improved question.

1. You redirected Sarah by pointing out the next steps she should take. How effective do you think that strategy was?
   a. (feelings)
   b. (cognition)
2. Tell me how you plan to assess student learning.
   a.
   b.
3. What might you carry forth from this lesson as some personal insights useful to you?
   a.
   b.
4. These kids are hard for you to handle. How do you plan to keep them involved during this lesson?
   a.
   b.
5. How many minutes do you think kids *actually* paid attention?
   a.
   b.
6. Why do you think so many students were lost during your explanation?
   a.
   b.
7. A teacher who really is a professional wouldn't put up with that kind of behavior. What do you plan to do?
   a.
   b.
8. What could you have done to make the lesson more interesting?
   a.
   b.
9. You seemed to make a decision to alter your approach. I'm curious about what triggered that decision.
   a.
   b.
10. What is your thinking about useful follow-up to this lesson?
    a.
    b.

Questioning Skills Note-Taking Guide

Questioning

Why Questioning?

_____

_____

Teaching Cycle

I. Plan

_____

_____

II. Teach

_____

_____

III. Reflect & Analyze

_____

_____

IV. Apply

_____

_____

Q-2

Exercise in Asking Mediational Questions

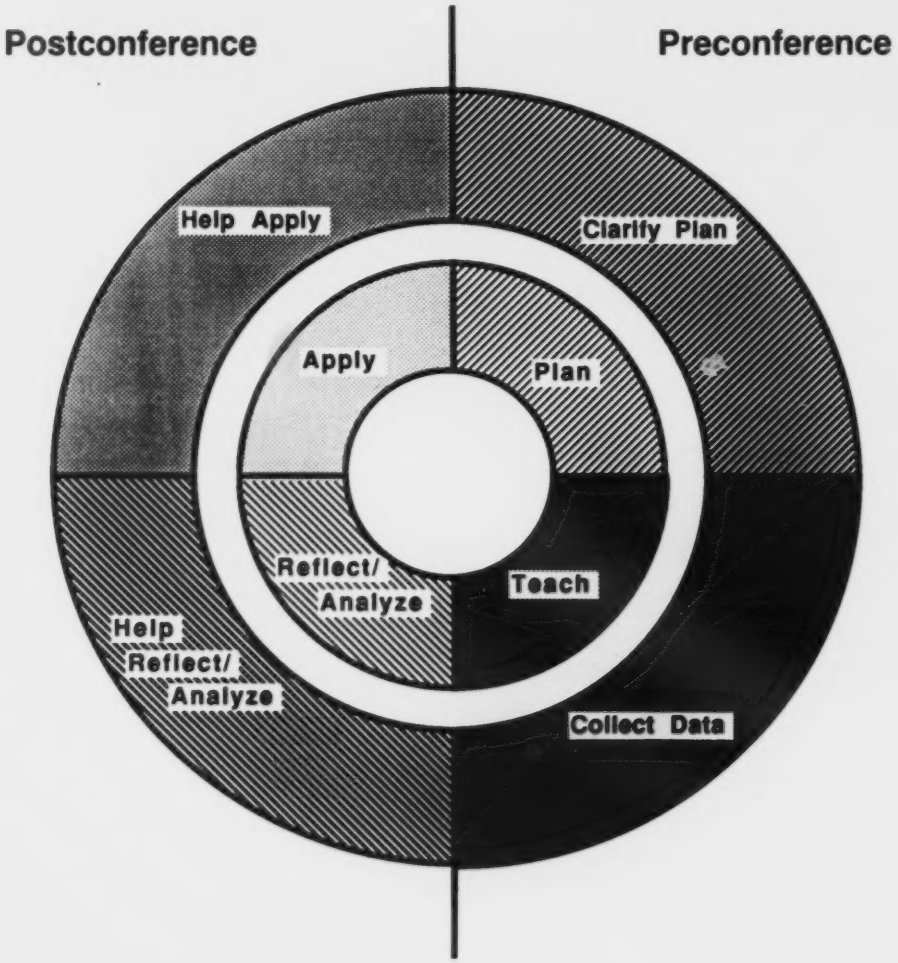
Occasionally, we find that some people make the mistake of equating mediation with asking a lot of questions. It is possible for a supervisor or coach to ask numerous questions of a teacher and be doing very little mediation. While good mediators typically do ask a lot of questions, it is not the number of questions that is significant but their quality. A good mediator asks questions that are directed toward engaging thinking processes. Below is a sample of 12 mediational phrases that illustrate how to emphasize thinking processes. Coaches may want to study this list from time to time and ask themselves if they are using mediational language.

Work in pairs and analyze the language. What kinds of thinking processes do these questions promote?

1. Tell me how you did that.
2. When have you done something like this before?
3. Yes, that's right, but how did you know it was right?
4. How is _____ different (like) _____?
5. When is another time you need to _____?
6. What do you think the problem is?
7. How can you find out?
8. What do you need to do next?
9. Can you think of another way we could do this?
10. Why is this one better than that one?
11. What do you think would happen if _____?
12. How would you feel if _____?

Q-3

Exercise in Developing Questions
Circle Graphic



Q-4

Exercise in Developing Questions

1. Trios develop supervisor's or coach's questions for the Plan, Reflect & Analyze, and Apply stages of the teaching cycle in the instructional supervision process. Place Q-5 and Q-6 side by side to begin this activity.

   Q-5 contains the teacher's objectives, what the teacher should be thinking about in the Plan, Reflect & Analyze, and Apply stages of the teaching cycle. In the preconference, the supervisor can help the teacher plan the lesson by asking questions that address the main points that need to be considered when preparing a lesson.

   Likewise, in the postconference, a supervisor's questions can help the teacher Reflect & Analyze and Apply.

2. Using form Q-6, develop at least one question to elicit teacher thinking about each factor that needs to be considered in the Plan, Reflect & Analyze, and Apply stages of the teaching cycle.

3. Be prepared to report questions of which you are particularly proud or with which you have concerns.

Q-5

Exercise in Developing Questions

Objectives of the Teacher

I. Preobservation (plan). The teacher will:
   1. State the purpose of the lesson.
   2. Translate the purposes into descriptions of observable student behaviors desired.
   3. Describe the teaching strategies/behaviors to be used to facilitate students' performance of desired objectives.
   4. Describe the sequence in which the lesson occurs.
   5. Describe procedures for assessing results.
   6. Anticipate any concerns.
   7. Describe the role of the observer.

II. The Lesson (teach). During the observation of teaching, no questions are asked.

III. Postobservation (reflect & analyze). The teacher will:
   1. Express feelings about the lesson.
   2. Recall student behaviors observed during the teaching to support feelings.
   3. Recall his or her own behavior during the lesson.
   4. Compare student behavior performed with student behavior desired.
   5. Compare teacher behavior performed with teacher behavior planned.
   6. Make inferences as to the achievement of the purposes of the lesson.
   7. Analyze why the student behaviors were/were not performed.

IV. Postobservation (apply). The teacher will:
   8. Prescribe alternative teaching strategies/behaviors/conditions.
   9. Evaluate the interview process and supervisor's conferencing skills.

Q-6

Exercise in Developing Questions

Coaching Questions to Elicit Desired Teacher Thinking

I. Preobservation (plan).

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____

II. The Lesson (teach).

III. Postobservation (reflect & analyze).

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____

IV. Postobservation (apply).

1. _____
2. _____

R-1

Responding Skills Note-Taking Guide

Responding

Probe & Clarify

- Become More Specific

_____

_____

- Clarify Criteria

_____

_____

Paraphrase

_____

_____

Clarifying Teachers' Statements of Goals and Objectives

You are preparing to observe student behaviors in a teacher's classroom. In the preobservation interview, the teacher states his or her expected behavioral outcomes. You wish to have the teacher state the outcomes as specifically as possible so you can collect data. If you think you could observe the following objectives, circle "Accept." If you think the objectives need to be stated more behaviorally, circle "Clarify."

When you circle "Clarify," please word a statement that would lead the teacher to become more specific.

IF THE TEACHER SAYS:	I WOULD:	
1. "I want the children to understand about the life cycle of insects."	ACCEPT	CLARIFY
2. "As a result of our experiments, I want the students to make inferences about the effects of soft drinks on teeth and make suggestions for proper care of the teeth."	ACCEPT	CLARIFY
3. "They will be studying the influences of missionaries in California history."	ACCEPT	CLARIFY
4. "I'll be looking for students' statements of comparison between democratic and authoritarian styles of decision making in our classroom."	ACCEPT	CLARIFY

Clarifying Teachers' Statements of Goals and Objectives (Continued)

5. "They will be recalling information that we have already covered about what living things need for growth."

ACCEPT

CLARIFY

6. "I hope my students will simply enjoy the music—it's a lesson in music appreciation."

ACCEPT

CLARIFY

7. "We're going to see a film about the Netsilik Eskimos. Today, I want them to list their observations, and I'm going to write whatever they say on the board. At a later time we will try to draw some relationship between what they have observed."

ACCEPT

CLARIFY

8. "You'll be seeing a reading lesson on prefixes and suffixes. I want the children to learn how to attack new words by looking at prefixes and suffixes as clues to word meaning."

ACCEPT

CLARIFY

Small Group Practice on Clarifying Criteria Into Observable Behaviors

In groups of three:

1. Teacher
2. Supervisor (or peer coach)
3. Observer

Your tasks:

1. The Teacher:	Make a broad goal statement about what you want the supervisor to look for. For example: "I want you to observe how I interact with students."
2. The Supervisor:	Clarify the teacher's statement. For example: "What specific interactive behaviors do you want me to observe?" or "What specifically do you want me to observe?" Continue to clarify, seeking statements of what the teacher pays attention to while interacting with students and by what criteria the teacher would judge success in this lesson. For example: "Give me some examples of responses you are planning to give. What would you anticipate I would be recording." or, "Tell me what behaviors I should look for in students if your responses to them are successful."
3. Observer:	After the receiver has clarified, make a judgment as to whether the behavior can be observed in the classroom. Offer, if appropriate, some ways of seeking translation of broad purposes into specific, observable behaviors.

E-1

Empowering Skills Note-Taking Guide

Generate Alternatives

- Previous Experiences

_____

_____

- Student's Point of View

_____

_____

- Consequences of Actions

_____

_____

Accept Responsibility

- Prescribe for Themselves

_____

_____

- Choose Among Actions

_____

_____

- Recognize Result of Action

_____

_____

- Correct Inadequacies

_____

_____

Empowering Skills Note-taking Guide (continued)

Become More Precise

- Vague Verbs

- Self-Imposed Rules

- Overgeneralizations

- Vague Comparisons

Exercises in Generating Alternatives

Trios: For each statement, write a response that models the sample response. If your trio has difficulty agreeing on a response, discuss what your cognitive goals for this teacher would be. Examine the presuppositions. Based on the goals and the presuppositions, decide which response would most effectively empower the teacher.

To *Generate Alternatives*, a teacher must consider previous experience, student's point of view, and consequences of actions.

Previous Experience means causing the individual to recall a similar situation that was successful and apply resources from that setting to the current situation. For example, ask, "Was there ever a time in which you were able to work with that student successfully?" or, "When you taught the lesson in the past, what did you find that worked for you?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "I want him out of here! He consistently disrupts the class. He leaves without permission."	1. "Was there ever a time when you were successful with him?" (If so) "Do you recall what you were doing at the time?"
	Your Responses
2. "Students can't seem to understand the concept of a topic sentence."	2.
3. "I seem to be experiencing almost no success with these students. Some of them can't even read."	3.
4. "Students haven't always been this way. I remember one class, in particular, that loved and analyzed Shakespeare. If only I could recreate some of that enthusiasm."	4.

Student's point of view means that the teacher views the class or the situation through the eyes of a student. For example, ask, "What consequence would the student find most fair?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "That kid is a monster. He's absolutely impossible!"	1. "What could he possibly be feeling when he behaves like that?"
	Your Responses
2. "I don't want them working ahead so I'm only giving them one page at a time."	2.
3. "That group always wastes time at the beginning of the lesson."	3.

Exercises in Generating Alternatives (continued)

Consequences of actions means to cause the person to think through the probable consequences of his or her decisions. For example, ask, "What would happen if you tried that?" or, "What could result from that procedure?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "I'm going to keep him in from recess until he completes his math."	1. "What long-range effects might that have on his feelings about math?"
	Your Responses
2. "I'll sit her in the corner until she learns how to behave."	2.
3. "I plan to send failing notices."	3.

Exercises in Accepting Responsibility

Trios: For each statement, write a response that models the sample response. If your trio has difficulty agreeing on a response, discuss what your cognitive goals for this teacher would be. Examine the presuppositions. Based on the goals and the presuppositions, decide which response is most elegant.

In order to *Accept Responsibility* for their actions, teachers must be able to: prescribe for themselves, choose among actions, recognize result of actions, and correct inadequacies.

Prescribe for themselves means causing the teachers to generate techniques or strategies to use to resolve a problem. For example, ask, "How would you solve that problem?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "If the parents can't motivate them to learn, how do you expect me to teach them?"	1. "What might *you* do within your own classroom to motivate them?"

Your Responses

2. "These kids can't speak English. How do you expect them to write compositions?" 2.

3. "I can't teach if you don't give me the materials." 3.

Choose among actions means enumerating a variety of approaches or strategies that teachers might use and then asking the teacher to choose the one that best meets classroom needs. (This approach is most useful if the teacher has a narrow view with only one possible solution or has no idea what to do.) For example, ask, "You plan to check student's understanding through homework tomorrow. Would you like to hear about some ways teachers check for understanding during the lesson?" At least three ideas are listed and the teacher chooses.

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "I have just run out of ideas! I can't get the students to get down to work!"	1. "Would you like to hear about a few ways I've seen other teachers structure the first five minutes of class time?" Provide at least three different alternatives and have the teacher choose what might work best

Your Responses

2. "No matter what I do, 50 percent are still failing." 2.

3. "There are no ways to handle a group that has such diverse reading abilities! 3.

E-3

Exercises in Accepting Responsibility (Continued)

Recognize result of actions means causing teachers to build connections between their own actions and student learning, rather than attributing learning to fate or luck. For example, ask, "What did *you* do that contributed to the success?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "Wasn't this a wonderful day? Everything just seemed to fall into place!"	1. "What did you do to cause it to go so well?"
	Your Responses
2. "Everything just fell apart today! I guess it was just one of those days!"	2.
3. "When I checked for understanding today, everyone was getting it! My lucky day!"	3.

Correct inadequacies means investing in others the capacity for correcting situations that can be within the teacher's control. An example would be, "He made me so angry." Redirect statements that misplace responsibility by: (1) validating the strong emotion ("I know you are angry."), (2) identifying the desired state ("You would like to be in control of the situation."), and (3) asking what other choices you could have made ("What other things could *you* have done at that time?").

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "How do you expect me to teach math to these kids? Last year's teacher did not prepare them."	1. "It is frustrating. What specific gaps need to be filled in? What do *you* need to do to fill in those gaps?"
	Your Responses
2. "No wonder they don't learn. This text doesn't have enough drill pages."	2.
3. "Every time he comes in late he makes me mad."	3.
4. "What do you expect? Look at the homes they come from."	4.

Exercises in Becoming More Precise

Trios: For each statement, write a response that models the sample response. If your trio has difficulty agreeing on a response, discuss what your cognitive goals for this teacher would be. Examine the presuppositions. Based on the goals and the presuppositions, decide which response is most elegant.

To *become more precise*, a teacher must learn to avoid: vague verbs, self-imposed rules, overgeneralizations, and vague comparisons.

Vague Verbs involves guiding teachers to be more specific in their understanding of a verb. For example, ask, "How *specifically* will the students demonstrate *understanding*?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "The students enjoyed the lesson."	1. "How, specifically, were the students enjoying?"
	Your Responses
2. "Today the students will *learn* long division."	2.
3. "I want the students to *behave*."	3.

Self-imposed rules means helping individuals to realize that the "have tos," "shoulds," "can'ts" in their language limit their view of a solution. The supervisor's goal is to gently challenge by causing teachers to examine their views to see if they are unnecesssarily limiting. For example, when a teacher says, "I can't ignore him," ask, "What would happen if you ignored him?" Or soften it with, "I wonder what would happen if . . .?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "The students just *won't allow* me to teach!"	1. "How would it be if the students *did* allow you to teach?"
	Your Responses
2. "I *have to* have five reading groups."	2.
3. "I *can't* let Mary get away with not finishing her homework."	3.

Overgeneralizations mean leading the teacher to realize that making a broad generalization is not always accurate and can limit the view of alternatives. For example, when a teacher says, "Every student will get 100 percent," ask, "Every student?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "*All* the students were awful!"	1. "All the students? Were there any who weren't?"
	Your Responses
2. "*I never* allow students to print."	2.
3. "*Everyone* lied about the substitute."	3.

Exercises in Becoming More Precise (Continued)

Vague comparisons means helping the teacher to complete a comparison, and leading the teacher to delineate criteria for comparing. For example, when a teacher says, "This was a better day," the supervisor might clarify with, "Better than what?"

Teacher Statement	*Sample Response*
1. "Sam was *worse* today."	1. "Worse than what?"
	Your Responses
2. "This is faster paced."	2.
3. "This was slower."	3.

M-1

Microteaching

(55-minute cycles)

Introduction

In this activity the three group members will take turns in 55-minute cycles playing the roles of teacher, supervisor, and observer. The tasks for each role are outlined below. At the beginning of each cycle, the teacher and supervisor conduct a preconference about the lesson while the observer collects indicators of conferencing skills used. The teacher then teaches the lesson to the observer (who also acts as a student). At the end of the lesson, the "teacher" and supervisor conduct a postconference while the observer collects data for feedback at the end of the conference.

In groups of three:

1. Supervisor (or peer coach)
2. Teacher
3. Observer

Your tasks:

1. **The Observer and Supervisor** have a brief preconference about what conferencing skills the supervisor will use (i.e., presuppositions, general questioning skills, body language, or rapport building) and what he or she wants feedback on. (10 minutes)
2. **The Supervisor** conducts a preconference (10 minutes), observation (5 minutes), and a postconference (20 minutes).
3. **The Teacher** participates in the preconference, teaches a 5-minute lesson to the observer, and participates in the postconference.
4. **The Observer** collects data about observable indicators of rapport, questioning, and responding and indicators of empowerment. The observer serves as a student during the teaching cycle. At the end of the postconference, the observer gives feedback to the teacher and supervisor about the conferences (5 to 10 minutes). The observer reports and discusses observations about the areas the supervisor was interested in.

Switch roles and repeat sequence until each member of the group of three has assumed each role.

Transcript for Practice I (Elementary)

Preconference
Elementary Math/Art Class
with Teacher Ellie Bonner
and Supervisor Diane Zimmerman

Note: Information in the left column is conversation taken directly from the video. The right column contains Art Costa's comments on the teacher-supervisor interaction.

Diane: Well, I'm glad that I'm here today. It's been quite a while since I've been in to observe you, and I'm really looking forward to this chance. Can you tell me a little bit about what you had planned today?

Ellie: Well, it's going to be a combination math and art lesson, we hope. It's going to be pop art, where I'm going to give each child a candy bar and then take the wrapper and open that up, and then enlarge it either four or eight times, um, to—on larger graph paper, then they'll draw what they have, paint it, and we'll fold it back together and stuff it to make a sculpture out of it.

Diane: Oh, so, basically what they're going to be doing is—they're going to be taking a candy wrapper, and with the candy wrapper they're going to . . . Um, what would be the first step that they would need to do?

Ellie: They'll eat the candy. I guarantee you.

Diane: (LAUGHS) Okay, so the kids will eat the candy and then the first step with the candy wrapper will be . . .

Ellie: They're going to paste the candy wrapper onto quarter-inch graph paper.

Diane: Oh, okay. So they'll be pasting the candy wrapper onto the graph paper.

Ellie: And then—then they're going to take a ruler and take the graph paper lines and make them go, uh, like they're going right over the paper—just make lines from the graph paper go through, so that they can see squares on candy wrapper.

Diane: So they'll actually be making the graph paper right on the candy bar.

This teacher is somewhat vague in stating her goals and objectives. She has a lot of information in this complex lesson and delivers it to her supervisor in a disjointed way. The supervisor helps the teacher break down the lesson through a step-by-step analysis. After listening to the teacher's goals and objectives, the supervisor probes for more specific information, trying to prompt the teacher to spell out in greater detail the goals and objectives buried in her broad opening statement. The ability to probe, clarify, and search for specific information is an important supervisory skill here.

Ellie: Uh huh.

Diane: Okay.

Ellie: Uh huh. The reason I'm having them use graph paper is so they have those lines for guidelines.

Diane: Uh huh.

Ellie: Then I'm going to have them label the areas—the sidelines—1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and A, B, C, D, E, et cetera, so that they can call the square 1A or 6B. We've done a lot of graphing and lettering before, so I think that part will—will go easily, I hope. Um, then they'll—I'm going to have them try and get the basic outline of the candy wrapper onto the large graph paper and go from that to start working on the lettering. And what I want them to get out of it is looking at the proportion and the scale, how much space each letter takes.

Diane: So what you're looking for is to have them, um, have some understanding of the scale and proportion.

Ellie: Uh huh. They'll be doing their actual drawing onto one-inch graph paper—large pieces—and so a quarter inch from the small graph paper will be one inch on the large graph paper. And they'll have to adjust the size of the letters to fit that.

Diane: So, um, the main outcome you have for the lesson then is that they have some understanding of proportion. What other kinds of goals do you have in your mind?

Ellie: I'd like them to see this as art in real life; I have another lesson that I plan to [teach] after this that will address advertising and the kinds of colors, logos, uh, that sort of thing, and that much of what advertising is, is art in our lives. So . . .

Notice how Ellie spontaneously volunteers that this lesson relates to a larger plan.

Diane: So it pulls a lot of other activities that you've had earlier in the year together into one.

Ellie: Uh huh.

Diane: Any other skills or goals you have as far as the math part of the lesson?

Ellie: Um, mostly—well, we've been working on fractions a lot, and so to take that quarter inch into the inch, I hope, will give them more concrete, um, realization of the fraction. Fractions are so nebulous to kids. They have so little use for them in their lives.

Diane: So really your outcomes for the lesson today then are, first, that they'll have some idea of proportion and spacing. Um, that they, um, have—begin to have appreciation for art in real life. Um, that they'll be able to translate or, um, figure out the fractional changes that occur when you take something [from] smaller graphic to larger graphic. Is there anything else I didn't get—get down? Or . . .

Ellie: I think that's basically it. When it gets to the part of it that it's painting, um, which will be—I figure this is going to take three lessons, three periods of art to do this. The first one will be just transferring it, and that may not even finish in a period. I think that's going to take the most time. Then they'll paint it. And then the next lesson we'll stuff them and fold them, put them together, and . . .

Diane: So actually today what I'll be seeing then is your teaching them how to do the activity, and then I'll be seeing them begin to . . .

Ellie: Right.

Diane: And you don't anticipate that they'll even finish that work today.

Ellie: I would really doubt it. I'd be most surprised because it's—takes a lot of small motor coordination to do this. I'm going to offer the option of doing it eight times—to the kids that are good at that sort of thing and would like to do it, but for some of them who can hardly make a pencil stay in a line, just getting the one square is going to [be] really tough.

Diane: So that some . . .

Ellie: And I will present that that way. That this can be a real difficult lesson.

After eliciting a clear, step-by-step lesson plan from the teacher, the supervisor paraphrases the information. Paraphrasing demonstrates the supervisor's understanding of the lesson and confirms the supervisor's and teacher's mutual understanding of the lesson. The supervisor also wants the teacher to mentally rehearse the lesson. However, the teacher may need some help in putting this lesson together, envisioning it, and making sure that all the pieces are in place before the lesson begins. By asking questions that prompt the teacher to describe what will happen in the lesson, the supervisor can reinforce mental rehearsal prior to instruction.

Diane: So some students will be allowed to enlarge it even larger.

Ellie: Uh huh. Some kids four and some eight, but I suspect most will go with four. Just because it's easier. I'd be surprised if they—I don't know, it's hard to tell. I have some real creative kids that might be willing to take that much of a risk. We'll just have to see how it goes.

Diane: What kinds of measures of success will you be looking for in the students as you're working with them?

Ellie: Uh, for today's lesson it will be first, that they can actually transfer the shape onto the large graph paper of the—just the outline of the whole shape of the candy wrapper, and then being able to transfer squares with the letters on, and get enough success that they feel like they can do it. It's going to be nervous–making for some kids, uh, using that pencil. That's one of the things I'm doing today is passing out new erasers. I'll know that will be part of it.

Diane: So you're giving out new erasers just to kind of alleviate some of the frustrations somewhat.

Ellie: I know they're going to have to erase.

Diane: . . . erase. So, what you'll be looking for then, is, um, whether they can actually do the steps that you will have demonstrated.

Ellie: Uh huh. Uh huh.

Diane: Okay, can you tell me a little bit about what you'd like me to look for today while I'm in your room?

Ellie: I'd like you to look for clarity in my directions. Are they logical? Is the sequence good? Do the kids seem to understand?

"What kinds of measures of success . . . ?" This question is intended to cause the teacher to become specific about the indicators she will look for to let her know whether this lesson is progressing properly. Knowing before the lesson what constitutes desirable behaviors helps the teacher know what to look for and what to ignore, what to capitalize on and what to forget in terms of student behaviors during the lesson. So many behaviors emerge that it can be difficult for the teacher to know what to address as priority behavior. This question causes the teacher to focus on specific student behaviors that signal whether or not the lesson is progressing as it should.

Notice as well the supervisor's body language and rapport skills—posture, gestures, tilt of the head, paraphrasing, even to the degree that she uses the predicate language the teacher uses. You can also see that the supervisor matches the teacher's language style, tonality, and rate and volume of speaking. This correspondence is an important step in building trust between the supervisor and the teacher.

Notice that the supervisor keeps the conference moving. She realizes that this is a complex lesson for which every step cannot be explained during the brief conference period. Probing for additional lesson specifics is unnecessary. She can now find out exactly what the teacher wants her to look for.

The supervisor asks what she should look for in the lesson that will be helpful to the teacher. Notice that the supervisor does not arrive with a set of preconceived objectives, but is guided by the teacher's desire for help in determining what to look for. The supervisor actually asks the teacher for direction and the teacher structures the supervisor's role in the classroom.

Diane: So—so what you want me to pay attention to is the clarity of your directions. Um, you're interested in the sequencing.

Ellie: Uh uh. Do they seem to be in a logical order? Are the children able to figure out what I want them to do? Is the pacing correct?

Notice how Ellie pays attention to more than just student response to her directions. She is aware of sequencing and timing too.

Diane: So when you give your directions you're going to be paying attention then to whether they're sequenced and in a logical order, um, whether the children are understanding, um, the directions. Is there anything else you pay attention to as you monitor the directions you give?

"Is there anything else you pay attention to as you monitor the directions you give?" Notice the presupposition the supervisor uses: that the teacher does indeed pay attention to what the students are doing. In other words, the supervisor makes her conscious of the cues that she naturally uses to monitor students' understanding of the lesson, and the overall success of the lesson. The supervisor wants to make the teacher self-monitoring and self-supervising; instead of asking the teacher what she, as a supervisor, should look for, she asks the teacher what indicators she normally looks for in her class.

Ellie: No, this is a lesson that I've never taught, and that always means that I'm not sure of how it's going to go. It's one that I wanted to do because it has a lot of things for both math and art and puts it together. So the risk is going to be that I don't know how fast to move. I try to watch them signal me, and of course, the thirty bodies—they're all at different places at different times. I want the pacing to be hitting the middle and not leaving behind the people who are frustrated. This could be a frustrating lesson for some, especially with those with small motor coordination problems.

The teacher has never taught this lesson before, but she feels secure enough to be vulnerable in the presence of a supervisor. This willingness to perform an untried lesson indicates a trusting relationship between the supervisor and the teacher. It also shows this teacher's autonomy. When asked if she would participate in this video, Ellie replied, "Only if I can learn something. That means it has to be a real lesson!" Her desire to grow is also demonstrated in the numerous points she asks the supervisor to monitor. Ellie pays attention to her lessons on many different levels, and she wants the supervisor to monitor those behaviors she is aware of, but cannot routinely observe herself. Less autonomous teachers are aware of only one or two things. Some teachers, especially if they have never participated in such conferences, will have no idea what they want the supervisor to look for.

Diane: Uh huh. So it sounds like what you look for when you make a decision about pacing is that the critical mass of students are—are with you.

Ellie: Uh huh.

Diane: And that you're not leaving anybody behind, um, when you're actually presenting the lesson. What—how would you want me to pay attention to that? Would you want me to monitor student behavior? Or . . .

Ellie: I'd like you to watch them more than me at that point, in fact, to see if they look like they're following me, to see if they're on task, are they able to do what I'm asking them to do, or is it, you know—did I make a bad decision even choosing this lesson? Is it too hard?

Diane: Uh huh.

Ellie: I think it's okay. I think that they've had enough with lettering and graphing that they'll be able to do it, but this is a new step—looking for the proportion, looking for the part of the square to draw in. I'm not sure how that part will go.

Diane: Okay, so what I'm going to be doing then is paying attention to the actual directions you give, but more to how the students respond to those directions.

Ellie: Uh huh. Uh huh.

Diane: As a check for you, um, about whether they were clear and in a logical order, and then I'll also be monitoring student behavior to determine if your pacing seems to be appropriate. Is there anything else that you want me to pay attention to?

Ellie: I'd like you to watch my body language, especially while I'm responding to people that seem to be frustrated, or people that aren't interested. Am I alleviating their frustrations, or adding to them?

Diane: Okay, so the body language in response to—to the students that are having trouble.

Notice that the supervisor asks the teacher to become very specific about what she wants the supervisor to look for. The supervisor, knowing that she will go into the classroom soon to monitor this teacher's performance, must have a very clear picture of the behavior the teacher expects from the students and the areas in which the teacher would like to receive feedback. Questioning and probing also cause the teacher to be specific in her own mind about the behavior desired and what she will do to achieve that behavior. And it causes the teacher to become metacognitive—in other words, to become self-monitoring. Identifying specific behaviors forces the teacher to think about her intentions and to clarify what the students, as well as the supervisor, will attend to in the lesson.

Ellie: Right.

Diane: That would be your body language.

Ellie: Uh huh.

Diane: And you had described it as are you helping them, or adding to the frustration?

Ellie: Uh huh.

Diane: So again, I would be looking at the students' response to your intervention.

Ellie: For the most part. But, at that time I would also like you to watch me. At this time of the year I'm sure I have set responses to people based on previous behavior. So . . .

Diane: Okay, so I would be observing your body language also.

Ellie: Uh huh.

Diane: Okay, okay, I think that gives me a good idea about what you want me to look for today. I'll be in around 10:25 today. That's the time we agreed on.

Ellie: Okay.

Diane: Great. I'm looking forward to it. Should be fun.

Ellie: We hope so. See how it goes.

Diane: Okay, I'll see you then.

Ellie: Thanks.

Each time the teacher gives the supervisor a point to observe, the supervisor probes for specific, observable behaviors.

Transcript for Practice I (Elementary)

Postconference

Elementary Math/Art Class
with Teacher Ellie Bonner
and Supervisor Diane Zimmerman

Note: Information in the left column is conversation taken directly from the video. The right column contains Art Costa's comments on the teacher-supervisor interaction.

Diane: That was fun watching you in action today.

Ellie: It was a lot more fun for me than I thought it would be. I thought I was gonna be real aware of what I was doing, what the kids were doing. And actually it was just like teaching a regular lesson. The kids acted like they always do.

Diane: So you didn't feel that having me there really got in the way.

Ellie: I guess I'm getting used to you.

Diane: That's good. How did you feel about the lesson in general?

Notice how the supervisor gives the task of assessing the lesson to the teacher. The first question, "How did you feel about this lesson today?" is broad enough to perform many functions. It forces the teacher to make a statement about the success of the lesson. It also allows the teacher to express feelings, which can help in diagnosing the amount of trust in the supervisor-teacher relationship. For example, if the teacher does not express feelings, but instead answers with a cognitive response (e.g., "I feel that 80 percent of the students achieved 90 percent of the objectives"), you might infer that the level of trust is not high. If, on the other hand, the teacher says, "Wow, that lesson was a bomb!" or "Gee, that was one of the best lessons I've ever had!" and shows disappointment or enthusiasm, a high level of trust probably exists between the supervisor and the teacher. A broad question also allows the supervisor to then probe further to ask exactly what student behaviors the teacher observed that indicated to her the success or failure of the lesson.

Ellie: Well if I had it to do over, I would leave out the part about multiplying and having it be eight times bigger 'cause that just seemed like one extra thing for kids to think about. And when I planned it, I thought that the ones that are really into art and into math would choose that. But there were all kinds of people making, I thought, bad decisions about doing that.

Diane: So if you were going to do it again you would definitely probably not want to offer that as an option, is that what you're thinking? Or . . .

Ellie: Just—that's my instant reaction. I don't know, when I think it through later whether—maybe I was trying to do too much in one day. I still haven't quite come to terms with that.

Diane: When you planned the lesson in your head, how did you anticipate? Did you just anticipate maybe a couple of kids wanting to do it that way?

Ellie: Mmm-hmm, absolutely.

Diane: And there're about ten, I guess that . . .

Ellie: Probably ten. Somewhere between six and ten and I never dreamed that they would go with that; they—they got into the size of it, they thought that would be exciting. And if I had thought that through, I would have probably taught it in two steps or at two different times because I have a feeling that they're going to get into frustrations as they try to transfer and enlarge and find a proportion of the size of the letters. And I have a feeling it's going to be real tough for some of those that made that choice.

Diane: I remember there was one boy in particular, the one with the yellow tee shirt on and he—you know, I could tell with the way you were interacting with him, he was one who you felt had made a bad decision. Can you think back to that instance when you were talking to him?

Notice how the teacher here is self-prescriptive. The supervisor does not have to look for solutions to problems because the teacher immediately describes what she would do differently in future lessons. This is a sign of an autonomous teacher. Autonomous teachers learn from experience.

Notice the supervisor's positive presupposition in the question, "When you planned this lesson in your head. . . ." The question focuses on the cognitive behavior of teaching and assumes that the teacher did plan the lesson in her mind before teaching it.

Ellie: Well, that was one of the things that I remembered from the lesson that I wanted to talk to you about afterwards is, what is your opinion of how I handled that? I thought I tried to be real clear with him at the beginning that I thought that was a bad choice. But then when I went back to him I was really firm with him that it seemed that he was getting in over his head trying to make that, um, you know. I wondered if I was really pushing him too much or was I—was I helping or frustrating him?

Diane: And that was at the point when you were telling him for the second time that he should perhaps do it a different way. What did you think? Did you feel like you were frustrating him? Or . . .

Notice that the supervisor asks the teacher to make an inference about the effects of her teaching behavior on a student. The supervisor does not *make* that inference, but *facilitates* the teacher's own evaluation of her behavior.

Ellie: Perhaps. And I think I based what I said on . . . the many other times that we've had the same kind of situation. And he doesn't bail himself out of those and he—and he becomes very argumentative and it can just go on and on and on. And I felt like he would never finish this project if I didn't say, "I strongly recommend that you go here."

Diane: I was just thinking back. There were some specific words that you used with him that I think maybe helped him focus a little bit. Do you remember any of the words you used?

Before sharing the data with the teacher, the supervisor asks her what she remembers about specific points in the lesson. Teachers often recall exactly what they have done, and supervisors can reinforce this behavior by questioning teachers before presenting data.

Ellie: Not at all.

Diane: The one that I underlined was visualize. You made a comment to him that he needed to visualize the whole product and that because he was having trouble visualizing, that's why you recommended that he not do it. And it's at the point that I saw his behavior go, "Oh, okay, maybe I don't know how to do this." And—and that's what, you know, I at first was paying attention to your body language because that's what—one of the things you'd asked me to look for. And—but I didn't see anything that I would construe as being negative. How did you feel about that?

Ellie: I try really hard not to show anything negative toward him because he can become, you know, a wall then. He just makes such a—it becomes a matter of principle to him, so I've worked on trying not to show negative [body language] toward him. But I'm never sure. You know, when you're only there with yourself you don't see yourself. And that was one of the reasons I wanted you to look for that.

Diane: [Were] there any other times that you were aware with the body language that—that you were conscious of your own body language with certain students?

"Were there any other times when you were conscious of your body language?" With this question the supervisor facilitates the teacher's recall of her own behavior. Of course, the supervisor could provide the data herself, but one of her goals is to get the teacher to regularly monitor her own behavior, without supervision.

Ellie: Uh, I'm conscious—conscious of it when I am monitoring the behavior by raising my eyebrows or giving somebody a look. And there were a couple of times I did that. So I was conscious of doing that a couple of times, which is a real normal behavior for me.

Diane: It seems to be effective with the students, too. They seem to know that . . .

Ellie: When they get that look . . .

Diane: Were there any other times when you were aware of your body language?

Ellie: Not particularly, unh-unh, no, I think that's one of the things I'm not that aware of and that's one of the reasons I asked you to look for it.

Diane: What I notice was that you seemed to be relaxed and—and interact with—I felt you interacted with the kids on a pretty equal basis. Another thing you had asked me to look at was your directions. When you, um, think back to the directions you gave to the students, did they seem appropriate? And did you recall that the students were able to follow the directions?

Notice that the supervisor asks the teacher to recall her directions and make inferences about their effectiveness. This prompts the teacher to be more self-analytical and self-evaluative, to see the relationship between what she wanted to happen in the lesson and what actually happened.

Ellie: I thought the directions were logical, that the kids were able to follow what I was doing for the most part, and that their frustration at doing it on the colored side of the candy wrapper

instead of the white side was something I hadn't anticipated at all. Never dawned on me. I thought I was really being clever thinking about marking those folds. But the, uh, the rest of the directions I felt were fine.

Diane: And so when you think back to the direction giving that you gave, you would probably make a modification for the direction you'd give about how to draw the lines on a candy wrapper. I had kind of checked because you asked me to look at the students' response to your directions and so each time you gave a direction I was checking to see what the students—you know, if they were following the direction. And I noticed that—the same thing you did, which was for the candy wrapper they didn't—some of them wanted to put the directions on the back. I also checked, um, after you had them label the boxes, you know, they had to go through and label the letters and the numbers, and that, um, the kids seemed to understand that.

Ellie: They didn't have much problem with that at all. There was only one that had put the labels on the lines.

Diane: And then, um, when the next one was when they had to draw the lines actually on the—

Ellie: On the paper.

Diane: Uh huh. And again the students seemed to understand what was expected there. And of course you were going around doing quite a bit of monitoring in between each direction. And then the last one was where they had to transpose the—start to transpose the—the—design onto the paper.

Ellie: From what I could see, that was going better than I had anticipated. It looked like once they got to that point, they knew just what they were going to do next. I know that—I can pick out which kids are going to have a hard time when it actually—when push comes to shove and they're putting that pencil there and trying to get those letters in straight. I think they've got enough direction and they know where they are enough that it'll work.

Diane: Yeah, it was hard for me to actually see what the kids were doing at that time because the pencil lines were light. But they seemed to be engaged, and they seemed intrigued by it. You could see a lot of them doing some mental things in their head . . .

Ellie: Trying to rush, trying to go ahead of where I was. They knew what was coming next.

Diane: Yeah, and, so it was kind of fun because they did seem to—to look forward to doing it and intrigued by the task. You also had wanted to—to have me look at your pacing. How did you feel about the pacing of the lesson? You know, when you transitioned between giving one direction and then going on to the next one, what kinds of things were going on in your head at the time when you were making the decision about whether to move on or to stay for a few minutes and have a few more kids finish?

The question, "What was going on inside your head?" again focuses the discussion on the teacher's decision-making process. By asking the teacher to recall the thoughts that influenced her behavior during the lesson, the supervisor makes the teacher think about how she determines what to do next in a lesson.

Ellie: Well what always does; you're always looking to see, or I'm always looking to see, if most kids are ready to go on and if the others seem like they're somewhat with me, and if most are, you have to go on otherwise you'll lose them and it'll start just being chaos instead of a productive lesson. So generally, that's how I do it is look to see if most of them are ready to go on, and figure out what I'm going to do with those that need to catch up.

Diane: And for the most part, at each transition it seemed like there was a critical mass of students who were ready to move on. There always were a few that weren't quite up with you. What were you thinking about those students at that time?

Diane's comment focuses on the teacher's metacognition. It also is a positive presupposition that the teacher is thinking and making rational decisions during instruction.

Ellie: Well in this lesson, none of them were ever more than one step behind. And even with the one step, they weren't that far behind that. So I wasn't too concerned because there were enough people sitting around everybody that I knew they could catch up. I knew they had enough support around them to be

able to catch up. Sometimes lessons go where they—some just get lost. But one or two will get lost and the rest are ready to move on. And then I still move on because you can't lose 90 percent for 5 percent.

Diane: So what's important for you then as you watch the kids is to kind of see how many steps behind they are in this kind of lesson and then also that sometimes you do make a decision just to go on and pick up those kids later in the lesson. So when you think back to the pacing then, for your lesson, it seemed and felt appropriate.

Ellie: Mmm-hmm, basically. Yeah. It's never perfect but it wasn't bad. I was comfortable.

Diane: Again, you had—you had asked me to look at student behavior in relation to the pacing and it pretty much corroborates with what we noticed in the direction giving—that the kids were on task. They did seem to know what they were supposed to be doing—were able to move along with you. So I think you met your expectations, which were that the students would be able to keep up with the pacing. How about expectations that you had for the students, as far as their behavior?

Notice here that it is the supervisor who calls on the teacher to make the value judgments. The teacher is becoming self-evaluating. The supervisor does not make value judgments about the teacher.

Ellie: I thought they behaved very, very well and were far less distracted by having you in the room than they've been previous times.

Diane: You seem[ed] to not have any trouble refocusing them when you needed. They, you know, quieted down with your signals, so it seemed that the expectations were clear.

Ellie: Generally, I think that's one of my strengths is classroom management. Umm, but I never have anybody else to look at it and see what do they think. That was my reason for asking that.

Here's a teacher who can identify her own strengths. Sometimes teachers put themselves down or attribute their effectiveness to some other condition (e.g., "It was my lucky day." or "The gods were with me."). But this teacher says, "No, I know how to be a good teacher. Here's one of my strengths." She knows that she is an effective teacher and she knows why. This internal locus of control is another attribute of autonomous teachers.

Diane: When you think back to this process, how did it feel to you? Is there anything that helped or got in the way of our working together?

Ellie: You didn't get in my way at all. I love this process because I like being able to ask you to look for things. I'm in that room by myself all the time with nobody noticing things that I do and always wondering, what's going on in other rooms or is there a better way to do this? I loved having the opportunity to have—say, "Diane, will you look at this, will you look at that?"

Diane: So you like—so you liked to be able to kind of direct what I'm going to focus on a little bit?

Ellie: Very definitely. I don't think I'd like it as much if you came in and told me what you were gonna look at. Or if you came in and told me what you wanted me to teach. Now I like having the chance to do different kinds of things when you're there, seeing what I'm most effective at and what ways I can change it.

Diane: And is there anything that I did that maybe got in the way of the smooth lesson or the pre- or postconferencing?

Ellie: Not at all. You—like I said—at first when the children would focus on you instead of the lesson, that was distracting, but now that they're used to the sight of you, that—I love the process. To me it's a treat. I look forward to it.

Diane: Okay. Well I enjoyed being in there today and I always cherish the chances to share a little bit about teaching. And, um, so I'll be giving you some written feedback just kind of reviewing our postconference in a couple of days when I get it written up and to refresh your memory about what we've talked about.

Ellie: Thank you. It's been a pleasure for me.

Diane: Okay.

Notice that the supervisor asks the teacher to go back over the supervision process, raise it to a conscious level, evaluate it, and provide feedback about the supervisor's effectiveness. By asking the teacher to consciously think about this process, the supervisor hopes to encourage the teacher to use it autonomously, without the invitation or the intervention of the supervisor. The feedback from the teacher is important in building trust between the teacher and the supervisor. The two of them are working hard in a collegial relationship to use their skills in promoting learning—the teacher wants the students to learn and the supervisor wants the teacher to learn. The supervisor herself also wants to learn.

I have discovered that the conferencing process causes the teacher to rethink the lesson, or parts of it, as many as three times. The teacher reflects on the lesson immediately after teaching it, during the postconference, and while reviewing the written summary of the postconference, if one is provided.

Transcript for Practice II (Secondary)

Preconference

Chemistry Class
with Teacher Lloyd Wells
and Supervisor Marilyn Tabor

Note: Information in the left column is conversation taken directly from the video. The right column contains Art Costa's comments on the teacher-supervisor interaction.

Marilyn: Hi, Lloyd.

Lloyd: How are you, Marilyn?

Marilyn: I'm looking forward to coming into your classroom today. What is it that you're going to be doing when I come in to visit?

Lloyd: I'll be introducing the last unit that they'll be involved in this year. It's an acid-base unit, so, uh, I . . . . The main objective that I have, the chemistry objective that I have for them today, initially, is when we get done, hopefully they'll have developed two rules, one for being able to identify the formula of acids, and the other, to be able to identify the formula for bases.

Marilyn: Right, now when you say develop these formulas, what do you mean by that?

Lloyd: Well, what I'm hoping to have them do is actually on their own, through a technique, I'm going to—I'm going to use concept attainment, uh, with this group.

Marilyn: Can I stop for just a second? When you say concept attainment, can you help me understand what you mean by concept attainment?

Lloyd: Um, I'm going to use a ser—a series of examples, um, uh, show them positive examples of—I'll start of with the—How I'll do it is I'll start off with the acids. Uh, I'm going to give them a formula for an acid and a formula for something that isn't an acid; hopefully through doing a series of these, I'll have them find a pattern, and through

At this point, the supervisor, Marilyn, probes for specificity. Her responsibility will be to observe specific behaviors in the classroom during Lloyd's lesson. Unless she knows what to look for in observable terms, she won't really understand her job or her role as an observer. Probing for specificity also causes Lloyd to be very precise about his objectives and raise them to a conscious level in his mind; this helps him to define operationally what his broad outcomes will be.

Here again, Marilyn probes for specificity. Lloyd uses a term, concept attainment, that may be open to interpretation; there are a lot of different definitions of concept attainment. Marilyn needs to understand what Lloyd means by this term since she wants the pictures in her mind to be clear and to accurately reflect Lloyd's idea of the lesson.

the pattern be able to verbalize and put together the rules that would allow them to recognize the formula for an acid if they saw it mixed in with a list of other formulas.

Marilyn: I want to be sure that I capture the key points of your lesson, so I hope you don't mind if I take notes.

Notice how the supervisor asks the teacher's permission to take notes. The intent here is to build trust. The supervisor has no hidden agendas, so she lets the teacher know precisely what she will be doing.

Lloyd: No. Not at all.

Marilyn: Okay, um, then, uh, what will you do after that?

Lloyd: What I do after that will depend on, uh, while I'm doing that, the interaction that I have with them. I hope—hopefully I'm going to draw some information out, out of them, that will allow them to—to build those rules. When they're—when they get to a point where they have developed the rules, I am going to have them take a look at the appendix of their book to see if they can refine one part of it.

Marilyn: So, you'll be gen—you'll have them generate that, or you'll put the list on the board of the acids and the non-acids, and you'll have them, uh, try to see a pattern in that.

Notice how the supervisor paraphrases. Paraphrasing helps build trust by showing that the supervisor is listening and has a great interest in the lesson. It also helps the teacher make sure that the supervisor understands what he has said.

Lloyd: Correct.

Marilyn: And then you want them hopefully to generate a rule from that, from that pattern. You'll also be using the book at that time.

Lloyd: We will go to the book at the end of that activity.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: And it will be two, two sequences that I'll run. I'll go to the book at the end of the, uh, activity for acids. I'll do it again after bases.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: In between both of those I am going to have them interact for about a minute or two with each other. I want to make sure that, um, they get a chance to verbalize to one another what they think the rules are. So I'll—I'll have them pair up at that, and this is an

activity they'll be familiar with; they do it all the time. At that point I'll get a chance to go out and listen to one or two of them interact.

Marilyn: How will you know if the students are getting this as you go along?

Lloyd: During the interaction, uh, nonverbal cues that I may get from them. Uh, nodding, uh, eye contact with myself and the board, uh, watching them go from—they'll have to refer to the periodic charts. I have one in the front of the room, one in the back of the room; they also have them in their texts. So if I see some students, as they're developing their hypotheses, referring to those, I'll know they're still engaged. Uh, I also use signaling techniques, and when I start, and periodically throughout the lesson, I'll ask them to give me indications if they understand or give me indications when they have developed a hypothesis.

Marilyn: What signaling techniques do you use?

Lloyd: Uh, I use the thumbs-up, thumbs-down technique.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: That's probably what I'll do after I put the first exemplars on the board. I'll ask them to develop a hypothesis based on what they see, even though they've—I've only revealed one exemplar to them. And example of each. I'll still ask them to develop a hypothesis, and simply give me an indication when they have developed that hypothesis. And I'll wait, at that point, until I see a thumbs-up from every student.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: That means if all at least thought about something that deals with what I put on the board.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: Then I'll go from there and give them two or three more, and ask them just to continue to indicate as long as their hypotheses hold up. After maybe three or four examples, I'll ask some of

This question—"How will you know if the students are getting this?"—is crucial. It asks the teacher to define or describe the student behaviors that will let him know whether the students are achieving his objectives. The teacher must describe in behavioral and operational terms the basic indicators of a successful lesson. Lloyd does this by imagining how that lesson will progress. He has thus created a predetermined vision of the significant student behaviors he will look for and those he will disregard as irrelevant.

them to verbalize their hypotheses. And then, how I work from there will depend on how they respond.

Marilyn: Will they be able to change that initial hypothesis as you put up more examples on the board?

Lloyd: I'll expect them to do that; uh, they'll know that the hypothesis—hypotheses should be changed if they don't fit.

Marilyn: So you are, uh, expecting that after you put one exemplar on the board, they'll form an initial hypothesis and as you continue to put those on, that they may change the original hypothesis, or in fact, they may change it several times.

Marilyn again paraphrases what she hears. This shows a desire to communicate and to understand the lesson. Paraphrasing not only creates meaning in the mind of the supervisor, it gives the teacher a precise mental rehearsal to assure that all components of the lesson are accounted for, including student behavior, teacher behavior, and movement in the classroom. The supervisor's questions prompt the teacher to think about all aspects of the lesson he plans to teach.

Notice how Marilyn and Lloyd's bodies are in alignment. The weight is shifted in a mirroring fashion. The legs are crossed, the hand gestures are similar, the head is tilted sightly. This mirroring combines with the paraphrasing of language to form a total congruence between the supervisor and the teacher.

Lloyd: They might.

Marilyn: Okay. And . . .

Lloyd: They might end up with the first hypothesis being—holding up all the way through.

Marilyn: Right, and uh, you have—it sounds like you've anticipated what some of these hypotheses might be on the part of the students.

The supervisor paraphrases the intent of the teacher.

Lloyd: I've tried to anticipate some of those.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: That's right.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: Like I say, I won't know until we actually go through. They may come up with some others.

Marilyn: So your exemplars have taken that anticipation into account.

Lloyd: Yes, they have.

Marilyn: Okay. Okay, and uh, at the end of the period then, uh, you will know whether they have attained these rules by doing what?

The supervisor probes for specific intentions.

Lloyd: When we're—when we've completed with going through both the acid and the base exemplars, they have

verbalized that we've talked about the rules. There are times that I'll write some information on the board. They'll refine it, they'll change it around, they'll come up with one good statement.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: Then as you'll note—you can look at the board when you go out there—you'll see I have three objectives listed up there.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: One of them is to be able to develop the rules that they can use for the acid and the base. A second one is to be able to, from a list of formulas, pick out those that are acids (formulas for acids) and those that are formulas for bases. So one of the checks I will use is I will give them a list of about ten formulas.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: I'm going to ask them to look at the list and decide, first of all, which formulas on the list indicate bases, and hold up a number of fingers that indicates how many formulas on that list of ten are bases.

Marilyn: Okay, so you're going to use this as a checking point.

Lloyd: Another signal technique, but mainly I just, uh, uh, check right now for me.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: If I see everybody up there with two and there were two bases, I can say they have—they know there were two up there. I will assume, at that point, that they picked the correct two. I'm not positive, but I'll assume that.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: I'll do the same thing for the acids.

Marilyn: So you'll do that both with the acids and the bases.

Lloyd: Yes.

Marilyn: They won't be talking to each other at that time.

Lloyd: No. And then, uh, whether I do the next step or not will depend on how I feel they have developed the rules to that point. I might ask them to use their appendix in the back of the book and techniques that they've already learned to write two or three formulas that they—that could possibly be for acids and possibly for bases. So I'd ask them to use the rules to see if they could actually write formulas. I'm not sure whether I'll do that or not.

Marilyn: Okay, so you're saying that depends on how what you've already described takes place.

The supervisor again paraphrases what she hears the teacher saying.

Lloyd: But my feeling—right, my feeling about where I think they are at that particular point.

Marilyn: Uh huh. So there are several cues that you're looking for then from your class. The signals that you've talked about. What they say during the interaction. You've talked about eye contact, and several kinds of things that will help you determine your pace and what you need to do then in the lesson as you go.

The supervisor continues to summarize what she hears, gradually adding to the picture of the lesson in her mind, which corresponds to the picture in Lloyd's mind.

Lloyd: Right, correct.

Marilyn: Okay. Okay. Now you mentioned a little bit earlier that there was something that you'd like me to look for. What is it that you'd like me to do today when I'm in your classroom?

The supervisor asks Lloyd what she can look for in his lesson that will help him later. This is a critical question in the preconference. It signals to the teacher that the supervisor is there to assist him. It also confirms that the teacher determines what data will be collected by the supervisor. The supervisor does not make arbitrary evaluations, but acts as another set of eyes in the classroom to observe what the teacher requests. The teacher here knows the information he needs and asks the supervisor to observe and collect this information for him.

Lloyd: One of the things I'd like you to do is watch what happens with the examples, with the exemplars; as I say, concept attainment—I don't use the technique that much. It's—it's not an easy one for me to develop . . .

Lloyd uses a teaching strategy that he admits he does not use very often. He displays vulnerability by seeking to increase his skill in a somewhat unfamiliar teaching strategy. In most teacher-supervisor conferences, teachers may be reluctant to be observed teaching lessons that are new to them. Lloyd, however, is willing to risk showing error or lack of knowledge in a teaching strategy to get feedback from Marilyn. This indicates that the two of them have a very trusting relationship.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: Because I have to go through all the possibilities of how I'm going to reveal and what examples I'm going to give. So I'm not sure how it's going to work. If you could watch the interaction of the students and involvement, uh, engagement with me, and listen to the questions that I use as I'm trying to involve or get—elicit more information from the students on the possible hypotheses or their hypotheses.

Marilyn: Okay. I hear a couple of things. I hear you saying to listen for your questions, and I also hear you saying to listen or—or to look at the students and their engagements. Uh, let's talk about the engagement for a moment. If students are engaged, from your point of view, what would I see them doing?

Notice that the supervisor once again paraphrases to check for accuracy about her perception of the teacher's lesson. She then goes on to probe for even greater specificity, asking for examples of what to look for as indicators of desired student behavior.

Lloyd: You should see them leaning forward, the body movement, positioned—facing, uh, where the activity is going on, which would be that side board. So they're not turned halfway around. Mainly their eye contact is over there; they are, uh, have body movements that indicate if they hear a hypothesis from the other end of the room: "Uh huh. Yeah. I had that one."

Marilyn: Head nodding too.

Lloyd: Head nodding would be an activity [that] would be there. Actual verbal interaction, being involved verbally in what's happening.

Marilyn: Now when you say—uh, let me tell you what I have there from what you've listed so far. You said leaning forward, uh, facing the activity, whether it would be you speaking or—or whether the board—looking at the board at that point in time.

Lloyd: Or turning to another student if another student is responding; they might completely turn around and you're going to—you can tell they're engaged with what's being said by the—by a classmate.

Marilyn: So turning to students who are responding would also signal engagement to you, too.

Lloyd: Yes, it would.

Marilyn: Okay, eye contact, head nodding, and then you mentioned verbal interaction. Uh, when you say verbal interaction, are you talking about the—the discussions that people will be having with each other as you—as you set that up?

Lloyd: Yes.

Marilyn: And, uh, I—I'm wondering what it is that you're interested in about your questions. What did you want to know about those?

Lloyd: Specifically, the type of questions that I use to try to draw information out of the students. I may not have to use many questioning strategies, depending on how their hypotheses develop.

Marilyn: So you would like to—you would like to have a record of the questions that you ask.

Lloyd: Yes. Yes.

Marilyn: So I can simply write down the question that you ask . . .

Lloyd: Write down the questions and responses, I guess—the questions I ask and any responses to those questions that I receive. I definitely would like to see those.

Marilyn: Okay. Uh, record questions and responses. Now, uh, let's see, you'd like both of those things; maybe we could do it this way. I could record the key questions, or the key words out of the questions that you ask, and, uh, record, um, the responses that I hear

The supervisor is alert to any vague terms, such as "verbal interaction," that the teacher might use. When hearing terms that could be misinterpreted or that are vague in the supervisor's mind, this supervisor always paraphrases, checks for accuracy, or probes to make sure that she understands what to look for in the classroom that will be an indicator of student interaction or student involvement or whatever it is that the teacher is looking for.

Once the supervisor has prompted the teacher to define with precision the desired behaviors of the students, she turns to the behaviors of the teacher. The supervisor is responsible for eliciting from the teacher questions she should be paying particular attention to. If the supervisor doesn't know what to look for, she won't record useful information for the teacher. Probing for specificity clarifies the lesson in the teacher's mind, and thus gives direction to the supervisor's efforts in collecting data during the lesson.

Asking clarifying questions also raises the metacognitive level of the teacher; that is, the teacher becomes more aware of and more conscious of his own behavior because he has become very explicit about it. Observers have found that during the lesson, the teacher pays more attention to those behaviors that he has described to the supervisor.

from students at that time. Once again, key words, because I won't be able to write down . . .

Lloyd: That'll be fine.

Marilyn: Every word that's said, and in addition to that, um, I could note at certain times, like every three to five minutes, um, I could note the time on the clock and I could record the student behaviors that I see at that time, specifically looking for what you've said: leaning forward, facing the activity, eye contact, head nodding, and so on. Uh, does that sound like that would give you a record of what you're looking for?

Lloyd: Yes.

Marilyn: Are there times during the period where engagement is very critical to you?

Lloyd: There will be a couple of times, uh, when the engagement will be critical. Uh, one will be during the first example sequence, the acid—the acid sequence right there.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: Their engagement at that point. That is a more difficult rule to develop than the base one. The second one will be the final thing that we do. I'm going to ask them to write a twenty-five word precis that combines these two rules and allows them to distinguish the two.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: The involvement at that time. If students are able to just start writing, and not have to—they're going to have to think a little bit, but those students that within the first minute are starting to put something down on their paper, that's going to tell me a lot.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: About whether they're—they are comfortable enough with what they have developed during the class. If I have a number of them that are sitting there just doing pencil chewing and not

Notice that the supervisor and the teacher together build the data collection device. The information collected by the supervisor is generally useless unless the teacher has discussed with the supervisor the form in which he would like to receive it. A standard checklist or observation procedure is rarely sufficient; the supervisor and the teacher must agree on a method of recording the information to meet the teacher's specifications—not the supervisor's or the principal's or the district's specifications.

sure what to write down, I've missed something, and I'm going to have to go back and do some reinput later on.

Marilyn: So you want me to notice if they start writing immediately. It sound likes that's an important point to you.

Lloyd: At that particular time, yes. That's right.

Marilyn: Okay, all right, I think I can do that.

Lloyd: All right.

Marilyn: Okay. I'm looking forward to the lesson, Lloyd. I'll see you at 10:00.

Lloyd: All right, fine.

Transcript for Practice II (Secondary)

Postconference

Chemistry Class
with Teacher Lloyd Wells
and Supervisor Marilyn Tabor

Note: Information in the left column is conversation taken directly from the video. The right column contains Art Costa's comments on the teacher-supervisor interaction.

Marilyn: Well how do you think it went, Lloyd?

Lloyd: I'm not sure yet. I think I have to talk it through a little bit. I think it went well. I got back from the students during the focus; during that first three minutes of interaction, I got back what I expected to get back from this group—that they wouldn't have any specific gross misconceptions about acids and bases. When we started to do the exemplars though, and I went over and was attempting to draw out or get them to develop the rules, I felt as though, at least at one point, that, uh, that I was losing them. I—I had the feeling—I don't know what you were seeing—I had the feeling I was talking with or working with only about five or six students.

Marilyn: What did they do that made you feel that way?

Lloyd: Uh, as I looked around the classroom, I stopped—I felt as though I stopped—losing eye contact and involvement.

The supervisor begins the postconference with a question that gets the teacher to make a broad evaluation of his own lesson: "How do you think the lesson went, Lloyd?" This allows the teacher to express his feelings about the lesson. The supervisor then asks the teacher to identify the specific behaviors he observed that caused him to reach this assessment of the lesson.

Notice that the supervisor asks the teacher to give indicators of student behavior that support his feelings that the lesson went well or didn't go well. Her objective is to cause the teacher to become self-evaluating and to establish a causal relationship between his lesson objectives and student behaviors. The self-evaluating teacher is aware of his objectives, and by observing student behaviors, he collects evidence that these objectives have been achieved.

The long-range goal of the supervisor is not to tell the teacher what he's doing right or wrong, but to have the teacher clarify each lesson in his mind before teaching; review his goals for the lesson; and specify what student behaviors indicate a successful lesson. As Lloyd describes the lesson to Marilyn, he shows that he *is* a keen observer of student behavior, and that he does incorporate these observations into his unconscious evaluation of a lesson.

Marilyn: What did you do when you found out that some of the students weren't with you? Or that they weren't on the track you wanted them to be on?

Lloyd: What I wanted to do was try to include some of the—I think you noticed—I tried to specifically draw some others in by calling on them.

Marilyn: Did you do anything else to—to capture the kids the way that you wanted them to go?

Lloyd: Only other thing I can remember that I did was physical—alter my physical position. I tried to move my position a little bit away from the board, towards some of the—I tried to walk, as you noticed, I tried to walk into the desk a couple of times and lean across. And specifically make eye contact with some of them and see if I could draw them back in.

Marilyn: So those changes that you put in your strategy, did—did they work? Were they successful?

Lloyd: I don't feel they were that successful at that point. When they started to write later on the precis, uh, I felt better about it as I walked around.

Marilyn: Are you saying that you didn't see the kind of involvement from your students that you want to see—until they were writing the precis?

Lloyd: That's correct. When we went through that first exemplar system, series with the acid and bases, with the acids, I—as I said—I had lost a few students. When I started to walk around and watch them in—in—with the working on the precis, most of them right away were starting to write, and the four or five that I was concerned about when I started to read, or just scanned a few of the things that they had written down, they were all right. They were on the money with the rules.

The supervisor wants the teacher to identify the aspects of his teaching behavior that caused the students to behave the way they did. Again, the goal is teacher autonomy.

Note that in this edited version of the conference, the supervisor does not appear to be paraphrasing. In the actual conference, paraphrasing would occur more often.

The supervisor again prompts the teacher to make a self-assessment, to not depend on the supervisor to tell him what worked or what didn't work. Based on his observation of students' behavior as it relates to his lesson objectives, the teacher makes his own evaluation.

Marilyn: Now, when you go back and—and, uh, replay the lesson again, what kinds of involvement did you see on the part of the students? Let's go back to—perhaps where you first started recording on the board. What did you see the kids doing at that time?

Notice how the teacher is asked to go back and recall. While the supervisor is indeed a data collector and can monitor student performance, the supervisor's goal is for the teacher to become the monitor of student performance as well. Recalling, monitoring, and observing student behavior are important skills of autonomous teachers.

Lloyd: They signaled when I asked them to signal. Uh, I saw—they were looking at the board, they were responding by turning toward me; uh, I saw them—I could—I could see thinking going on, I guess—uh, the wrinkled brow, the. . . . When I said form a hypothesis, I saw defocused looks, I saw students retrieve information, going down, going up, so I saw most of them involved in it. They all got started at that point.

Marilyn: Uh huh. And a little bit later on, uh, at another point in the lesson, maybe midway through, what are some of the things you saw your students doing then?

Lloyd: Starting to disengage.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: Uh, I had some disengagement that was going on at that point.

Marilyn: What did you see that made you think it was disengagement?

The supervisor detects a vague term: "disengagement." By being alert to such terms and asking for more information, the supervisor can cause the teacher to look at and define individual and distinct behaviors that indicate exactly what the teacher means by those terms.

Lloyd: Um, sitting back. Uh, like almost saying to me, "I'm kind of tired right now with this," or, "I'm not quite as involved now as I was before."

Marilyn: Would—would you say that during the course of your lesson, that you had the kind of eye contact that you were looking for most of the time?

Lloyd: Yes, I would.

Marilyn: Okay. All right. What, uh, what were some of the other things that you, uh, were looking for, that signaled engagement to you?

Lloyd: When I had them break up into pairs, okay. They'd interact in pairs; there was a lot of involvement then. You noticed at one time—you had this—the group in the back—Travis, Craig, uh, Anita, uh, Andy. When they got together there was a lot of discussion for several minutes back there on the hydrogen ion and the—the anions, and how they related: "What about the hydrogen in the anions that I see on this side of the appendix . . . . What about the hydrogen ion in the acid and the charges that were going on?"

That was good interaction. You notice I leaned over and I tried to see if I could do some sort of clarifying on the question, because some of it—what Anita was discussing—did not have to do with the objective. It had a lot to do with chemistry. . .

Marilyn: Right.

Lloyd: And a lot to do with acids and bases . . .

Marilyn: Yeah.

Lloyd: But not with the specific objective, and Craig was with the objective, but he was having trouble bridging what . . .

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: Anita was saying. So I was hoping to come to—I don't feel as though I satisfactorily closed with them on that, and I consciously decided not to continue to probe with it, but I tried to get them to get to some point where they were comfortable enough to come back.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: To the—the—the class activity.

Marilyn: When you go back and rerun the lesson, at what points during the lesson did you get the most involvement from your students? Let—let me ask that in another way. What were you doing at different points in the lesson when you saw the—the most involvement on behalf of your students?

The supervisor helps the teacher see that his behavior has an effect on students and tries to get the teacher to determine which of his behaviors helped the students to become involved in the lesson.

Lloyd: The one-on-one interaction? Um, when they were signaling at the beginning. When they were, uh, taking three minutes to write down their information, and the preinformation, or information that they thought they knew about acids and bases.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: When I dropped the ten formula list and asked them to indicate how many bases and how many acids that they saw there, I—I felt they were all involved at that particular point. I could see that.

Marilyn: Okay, so you're saying that when you have students write, when you have students signal, when you have students interact, one-on-one, meaning with one another . . .

The supervisor paraphrases the teacher's comments.

Lloyd: Uh huh.

Marilyn: That's when you saw that the—the kind of involvement that you were looking for.

Lloyd: Yes.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: Exactly.

Marilyn: You know, earlier on, uh, we had talked about the objectives for your lesson and you had three objectives today.

Lloyd: Uh huh.

Marilyn: Um, did you feel that the students were able to meet those objectives that you had planned for them?

Notice that the supervisor gives the teacher the task of evaluating the suitability and effectiveness of his lesson objectives. The supervisor could have told the teacher whether he achieved the objectives of this lesson, but supervisors trying to develop autonomous teachers must give the responsibility for evaluation to the teacher, so that self-evaluation is the result.

Lloyd: Two of them, yes. I can say, um, I—One of the—definitely from being able to—one of the objectives was to have them pick the formulas for acids and bases from a list of formulas. As that objective stood, I felt very comfortable that they did do that. Every student with the exception of one was able to draw that information up there, uh,

when we went to the—went to the chart. Um, developing the rules, I felt 90 percent sure that mo—that most of the class did do that successfully. And then finally, as I walked around, too, as I said, once again, when I looked over their shoulders, when they were writing the precis, uh, the precis, uh, there were six or seven of them, I knew for sure, were all right, because I consciously had read more than just a couple of sentences. The rest I'll know when I pick up the precis tonight.

Marilyn: When you do the reading.

Lloyd: And look at them tonight. Right, and then I'll come back tomorrow.

Marilyn: So you really gathered a lot of information that shows you that your students were able to meet two of the objectives.

Lloyd: Yes.

Marilyn: Okay, and it sounds like you made a decision during the course of the lesson about that other objective.

Lloyd: I decided not to—not to get them involved in that yet. The other, uh, objective was to have them actually see if they could take the rules, using their past knowledge of how to use a periodic table and oxidation states, or valences, and be able to write, actually put together what would be acceptable or possible formulas for acids and bases. Not that they would actually be ones that exist in nature, but ones that would fit all the rules, and legally say, if it could exist, it would exist like this.

Marilyn: What was it that caused you to drop that objective from the lesson today?

"What was it that caused you to drop that objective from the lesson today?" Notice that the supervisor assumes that this teacher is making a conscious decision. Examining the basis for his decision helps the teacher become more conscious of his decision-making processes. We are interested in the supervision model of identifying, illuminating, and helping the teacher to become more conscious of decision making as a skillful act of teaching.

Lloyd: I thought it was one objective too—one step beyond where I wanted to go, that I felt comfortable, I—I—felt—I didn't feel totally comfortable where they were. All right. If I had thought that—first we were closing down the period; we were real close to the end. If I tried to put that in, I don't think it would have linked up, as far as a learning link, well enough with the other material right at that point. I would be introducing something just a little bit new, and I would be—I was—I was a little bit afraid I might precipitate and lose some of what they had.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: And since I wasn't sure if—if we had ten or fifteen minutes left in the period, and they were well grounded in those first two objectives, then I would spring to that. So what I'll do tomorrow when I come back, is we'll take a few minutes for kind of a quick review.

Marilyn: Lloyd, you had asked me to gather some data for you. Would you like to see that now?

Notice how the supervisor asks permission to share the data she collected. The supervisor enhances the trust relationship by asking the teacher if this is a good time to do this. It might well be that the teacher doesn't want to see the information right now. The supervisor would agree to his request.

Lloyd: Yes, yes I would.

Marilyn: Okay. There were some things that were extremely important to you that related to the engagement of your students. And you had asked me to look for specific behaviors on their part that would indicate to you that they were engaged. And you also were concerned about your questions; you were interested in seeing what kinds of questions you asked, uh, the type that you asked, and uh, you were interested in student responses.

Lloyd: All right.

Marilyn: Okay, let me lay out the data here for you.

Lloyd: All right.

Marilyn: Now here, about 10:27, you had your focus discussion. This, um, is a checkmark that indicates that every student in your classroom had eye contact with you. Here again, they had eye contact with you. Um, this shows that they were all facing the teacher as you were speaking. All were facing the teacher. Is this starting to make some kind of sense?

Lloyd: Yes, it is, yes.

Marilyn: Okay, um, you were over at the side of the room explaining the acids and non-acids on the board, and at that time, you started . . .

Lloyd: Still have eye contact.

Marilyn: Uh huh. Everyone had eye contact with you, and then a bit . . .

Lloyd: Four of them were writing something.

Marilyn: Uh huh.

Lloyd: Uh huh.

Marilyn: And I was able to go around later on and look at the papers. And what I saw on the papers looked like notes. What they were writing had to do with the topic.

Lloyd: Had something to do with chemistry.

Marilyn: Um, you indicated two very important areas to you. The first was when you gave the first example in the sequence of acids, so that—this is what happened when you did that. You asked your students to formulate some hypotheses in their minds.

Lloyd: Uh huh.

Marilyn: You had everyone's eye contact; everyone responded with a thumbs–up on your first example. Okay, and it goes on.

Lloyd: Yes, okay.

Marilyn: Now, you were concerned about the number of students who would be involved in the discussion, and what I noticed was that all sixteen were involved in the discussion, and I also wrote down that they went into groups

and they began their discussion within one to two seconds—after you gave that direction.

Lloyd: Oh, oh, I didn't realize that. Oh.

Marilyn: And there's another time that, uh, you had the discussion going, here, and at this time you had two triads and five dyads, and once again, all your groups formed—were formed and began their discussion within one to two seconds.

Lloyd: All right.

Marilyn: Generally speaking, you see other kinds of things here like seven students at a time looking at a student who responded. Taking notes, thumbs-up, um, people talking with one another on task—about the topic. So there was a good deal of involvement from that point of view.

Lloyd: I hadn't realized at that point there was that much involvement, that—I get a much better feeling about what went on, and I didn't notice that.

Marilyn: Okay. This is the closure of your lesson, and, uh, this is after you'd gone to the charts. Asking your students to hold up the number of fingers. Fifteen held up three fingers on your first question. Five, uh, were checking around the room to see what other students had done.

Three were holding up three fingers on the second question, when you asked how many could identify the formula, fifteen thumbs out of 16 went up.

Lloyd: Good, that's what I wanted them to do.

Marilyn: You had indicated that the precis was an important point to you.

Lloyd: Yes, I did.

Marilyn: And at that time you gave the direction to your students to write, and within three seconds, fourteen of your students were writing; within six seconds all of your students were writing. And when you asked, "How many can complete this in one minute," after they had been writing for some time, eight hands went up at that question.

The supervisor presents the information objectively. She draws few inferences; instead, she prompts the teacher to form his own conclusions from the data presented. The supervisor is a mere data collector whose job is to present information in a nonjudgmental way.

Lloyd: Mmm.

Marilyn: Now after you've had a—a brief chance to look over the data, and I know you want to spend a little bit more time with it later on . . .

Lloyd: Yes, I do.

Marilyn: . . .umm, what can you say about the level of involvement that you see on the part of your students?

Notice again that the supervisor presents the data and then asks the teacher to draw conclusions from them. A supervisor doesn't want to rob the teacher of the opportunity to make inferences, because the goal of supervision is to cause the teacher to become self-analyzing and self-evaluating. Asking questions that cause the teacher to compare what was achieved with what was desired is the supervisor's responsibility.

Lloyd: First of all, after you went through this, it was a lot more than I thought I had. You'll recall when we started I said there was one time there where I thought I'd lost a number of them.

Marilyn: Mmm-hmm.

Lloyd: According to the indications that you have, I—there—I have—I didn't lose as many as I thought I had.

Marilyn: Mmm-hmm.

Lloyd: And, ah . . . that makes me feel good.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: I was pleased with that.

The teacher does not depend on the supervisor to tell him whether he's doing a good job; instead he looks at the information collected by the supervisor and determines how it compares to his objectives for the lesson. The teacher is self-reinforcing.

Marilyn: Now what is it you think you did that kept the students involved?

"What . . . kept the students involved?" After presenting the data, analyzing them with the teacher, and recalling at what points the students were involved, the supervisor asks the teacher to draw a causal relationship between his own behavior and its effects on students. The goal is to make the teacher more conscious and in command of his own behavior. Autonomous teachers are effective because they know what their behaviors are, they know what effects their behaviors have on students' learning, and they can command their behaviors as tools to enhance students' learning.

Lloyd: Oh.

Marilyn: I want to ask that again. What is it that you did that kept your students involved?

Lloyd: (PAUSE) I'm not sure. The interaction that I had—ah . . . that I—maybe that I didn't eng—disengage with them, that I continued to—probe or ask some question. I didn't, ah—the major thing that comes to my mind right away is that I didn't get frustrated. I didn't get frustrated and short-circuit what they were doing. Okay, that's enough. Let me tell you the rule. This is a rule. I kept it open, I—I—I tried to kee—that's one thing that was going through my mind consciously. Keep it low-key, I wished that they were picking this up a little quicker, but I'm not going to change what I'm going to do. I'm gonna carry it through. And, ah, 'cause I've learned in the past if I—give them a little more time, and also wait a little longer, they'll still respond. So maybe that was it.

Marilyn: Are you saying then that you're finding that by hanging in there and giving them the time to do the things that you had set out to do with them and your strategy—that your strategy of concept attainment was successful in meeting your objectives?

We have some indication that this teacher uses metacognition; he is aware of his behavior while teaching. Notice that it is the supervisor who asks the teacher whether the lesson was successful or not. The success of a lesson depends on the teacher's ability to cause the students to achieve the objectives identified in the preconference.

Lloyd: I now feel it was, yes.

Marilyn: Okay, okay. Now, I'd like to ask a couple more things. Ah, now that you've had an opportunity to be through this process of supervision, what do you think about the process?

The supervisor's question helps the supervisor and the teacher. The teacher can give the supervisor his judgment of the effectiveness of the supervisor's strategy, and he can reflect on the supervision process and realize that it was a self-supervising technique.

Lloyd: I love it. For me as we—I'll speak, I have to speak for myself. Ah, I need to bounce information off people. I need to talk with colleagues, with professionals, with other individuals who know what's going on in a classroom. It works very well for me.

Marilyn: If there were one thing that you were going to select, from the lesson today, that you wanted to carry forward to the next lesson, something that you've learned or gained from it. What would that be?

The supervisor again makes the teacher analyze his own lesson by asking the teacher what he learned that can be applied to future lessons.

Lloyd: Today, when in doubt, let the students interact with each other more. Get—be patient and give them the time to process information together. I guess that's the main thing. Wasn't it?

Marilyn: Okay. You know, as a supervisor I also like some feedback and perhaps you could give me some feedback about my role. Could you identify one thing for me that you found that was most useful to you today, that I did with you?

Lloyd: I guess there were a couple. I wasn't that sure the lesson went that well as far as engagement was concerned; you've told me it did. Also, as you gave me back information, well in the—in the preconference.

Marilyn: Mmm-hmm.

Lloyd: Ah, there were a couple times when you fed back information to me that I—that caused me to—to decide on altering a couple of things that I did.

Marilyn: Oh.

Lloyd: One of them was I—I added—I changed a couple of exemplars or examples that I use. As—just as I was talking to you, as you were asking me some things about—specifically, if you recall specifically how I use some of the examples or how I was going to use them or what sequence I was going to do.

Marilyn: Right, uh huh.

Lloyd: I realized that one of them, or two of them, I was going to change for a particular reason.

Marilyn: Okay.

Lloyd: So I made those changes consciously when I was up there because of that.

Marilyn: I appreciate the opportunity to be in your classroom today. Thank you for the visit. Really appreciated it too; it was very effective for me.

Lloyd: Well, thank you. I enjoyed it.

Eliciting feedback from the teacher about the supervisor's behavior is crucial for the supervisor. It confirms that the supervisor is also a learner in this process and needs feedback about her skills. Most classroom observers do not ask teachers for feedback about their behavior, and thus miss an opportunity to build a trusting, collegial relationship with teachers.

Marilyn: And I want to leave all the notes here for you. You can look at these later on.

Lloyd: Thank you, Marilyn.

Notice that the supervisor gives all the information she has collected about the lesson to the teacher. The information is for the teacher's use and remains with the teacher. The teacher knows that this information will never become part of his or her personnel file. The supervision process is a confidential exchange between the teacher and the supervisor, and confidentiality is essential to trust.

The Readings

1.
The Clinical Supervision Model
Supervision in Historic Perspective

Sister Dorothea Foley

Instructional supervision can be traced to the early American settlers who concerned themselves with the establishment of schools. Mainly they emphasized the obligation of "keeping school." From 1742 until late in the eighteen hundreds this emphasis on school supervision is clear. The concern then was with removing weak teachers and inspecting schools for "conformity to standards prescribed by the committee of laymen." From the late eighteen hundreds to the 1930s supervisory focus was shifted from "keeping school" to "instructional programs." During this period professional educators replaced the lay committees. Principals were appointed as fulltime managers of the schools. It was their responsibility to inspect teachers in a fashion similar to the lay committees. With the development of the scientific movement in the early 1900s, testing and standards for teachers and students to achieve resulted. Efficiency became the key word in educational circles. This movement toward efficiency also contained many attempts to control student and teacher behaviors. Scientific methodology was the predominant method used in the study of educational problems. By this time the need for education had become so great because of a large increase in the number of secondary schools, that in 1929 the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction was founded as a separate department of the National Education Association. In 1943 this department merged with the Society for Curriculum Study and Curriculum Development of the National Education Association. A concern for human relations and group cooperation in education became apparent in the 1930s and 1940s. "The concept of supervison as democratic, cooperative, and creative guided the practice" until the end of the late 1950s. "Three major areas of emphasis" became apparent: "Supervision as guidance, supervision as curriculum development, and supervision as group processes." The supervisor now became a helper rather than an inspector. In the 1960s further research was done to endeavor to develop a "conceptual framework for the basis of supervisory practices." Many supervisors during this period in time became change agents in their schools and communities. For example, Kenneth D. Benne, a young professor from the University of Illinois, argues that:

> Educational leaders must become change agents skilled in inducing, directing, and stabilizing those changes in persons, groups and organizations which intelligent development of educational situations today requires.

Efficiency of methods of instruction continued to predominate since World War II and most educational leaders since then have tended to accept the ends as given. Sensitivity training and group dynamics were accepted by government, business, education, and religious institutions. While intended to produce "democratic group process," this training toward group thought served better to confound individuality and to further bureaucratic group processes. However, these techniques proved successful in bringing about greater human productivity in many institutions. With the practice of such techniques the role of supervisors in determining goals faded.

In the 1970s the role of parents in making educational decisions for their children was gradually transferred to teachers. Productivity in the 1980s was again evaluated in efficiency. Emphasis reverted again to ends rather than means of achieving them.

A Clinical Approach to Supervision

In the late 1950s, Morris Cogan and a group of supervisors working in Harvard's Master of Arts in Teaching program discovered a serious problem. The students in the MAT Program did not find the suggestions made by Coga and his supervisory staff helpful. Cogan and his colleagues listened to the concerns of their students and encouraged their feedback. The basic problem seemed to be that the supervisors were offering solutions to problems they were concerned with, but not necessarily those problems encountered by the students. All efforts by students to change the conference style of supervisor talking and teacher listening had failed. Cogan and his colleagues initiated a serous study of their style of supervision. Much experimentation, groping, and fumbling resulted, but finally the clinical supervision approach was developed.

Clinical supervision is based upon several propositions:

1. Teaching (performance and results) is a behaviour. Teaching is composed of a teacher's actions and those of the students. These actions are observable singly and in interaction.
2. Teaching behaviour is assumed to be understood and controlled.
3. Instructional improvement can be achieved by changing or modifying certain behaviors.
4. The relationship between supervisor and supervisee can be mutual. Supervisors and teachers can work as colleagues.

The values associated with clinical supervison are as follows:

1. Respect for the autonomy of each individual.
2. Inquiry, analysis, examination, and evaluation, especially when intitiated and regulated by the supervisee, are hightly valued.
3. Human compassion, patience, a knowledge of its impact upon the lives of others, are especially valued.

Clinical supervision is a cyclic process composed of eight phases:

1. Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship. During this first phase the supervisor:
   a. establishes a mutual relationship between himself and the teacher;
   b. enables the teacher to become familiar with the process of clinical supervision and to understand its sequence;
   c. begins to induct the teacher into his new role and functions in clinical supervision and to understand its sequence;
   d. generates a relaxed atmosphere.

   These operations are carried out well in advance of the supervisor's entry into the teacher's classroom.
2. Planning with the teacher:

   The teacher and supervisor plan the lesson together. They plan in terms of objectives for students and teacher. These plans include specifications of outcomes, anticipated problems of instruction, materials and strategies of teaching, processes of learning and provisions for feedback and evaluation. The teacher describes what the class has been studying prior to the observation and what follows. This enables the supervisor to see the lesson as part of a whole rather than as an isolated portion of instruction. Clarification may be requested by the supervisor at this point. The supervisor may make minor suggestions to improve the lesson.
3. The supervisor plans the objectives, processes, and the physical and technical arrangements for the observation and collection of data. His functions in the observation are clearly specified. The supervisor encourages the teacher to join in this planning. He encourages the teacher to indicate on what aspects of the teaching he would like feedback. Clarification is pertinent at this stage. Both teacher and supervisor use terminology that is clearly understoood by both parties. The items contracted on must be those considered to be important by the teacher. A time for the classroom observation and for the postconference will be scheduled. The supervisor encourages the teacher to prepare his own analysis of the lesson, especially with regard to the points in the contract.
4. Observing instruction:

   The observer enters the classroom as unobtrusively as possible. Cogan suggests that the observer be "neutral and nonparticipating." He records in writing all his observa-

tions within the classroom. It is important that the supervisor records everything, not just what he considers to be important. He records exactly what happens, not his interpretation. When the lesson has been completed, he departs from the classroom as quietly as possible.

5. Analyzing the teaching–learning process:

   The supervisor reviews notes with respect to the contract. He looks for the specific incidents in his notes that relate to the items in the contract. A final review of the notes is made to discover significant teaching patterns and critical incidents. He checks for form of class structure, level of questions, teacher responses, student behavior, and evidence of achievement of proposed objectives.

6. Planning the strategy of the conference:

   The supervisor decides on the strategy he will use in sharing with the teacher. It is necessary for him to consider how defensive the teacher will be, his relationship with the teacher, and how willing the teacher will be to implement the suggestions he might make. The contract items are dealt with first. Then, with the agreement of the teacher, the supervisor discusses other items he discovered throught analysis or from observation. It is also suggested to begin with a review of the teacher's objectives. Both teacher and supervisor discuss the achievement of the objectives. Plans for remediation are also discussed. A sensitivity to feelings and to the needs of the teacher is the best guide to an appropriate beginning.

7. Postconferencing:

   The teacher receives feedback from the supervisor on those aspects of teaching that were of concern to the supervisor. Different reactions from teachers cause supervisors to conduct the conference in various ways. The literature suggests that only positive feedback be given to defensive teachers. A balance of positive and negative feedback is given to the more stable teacher.

   Generally speaking, it is more effective and productive if the supervisor begins with the positive and finally offers suggestions for improvement. Feedback needs to be specific by referring to the notes taken during the observation. With the agreement of the teacher, the supervisor introduces his analysis of the key patterns of instruction noticed during the observation.

8. Renewed planning:

   The teacher and the supervisor stop the analysis of the previous lesson and plan the next lesson and the changes the teacher will begin to make in instruction.

   A postconference analysis is a very productive stage to add to the cycle. The supervisor analyzes the postconference just completed by answering the following questions:

   a. Was the teacher's professional integrity respected?
   b. Did platitudinous comments and professional jargon give the appearance of agreement between teacher and supervisor where no agreement actually existed?
   c. Was the discussion time balanced between observer and teacher?
   d. Was feedback on contract items specific and supported with reference to the classroom notes?
   e. Was the analysis of the lesson adequate, in light of the teacher's interpretation, and was the strategy appropriate?
   f. Was the contract satisfactory? Was it specific? Was the supervisor successful in getting the teacher to place items in the contract that were of concern to him or her?

Summary

Clinical supervision emphasizes teacher growth; traditional in–class supervision emphasizes that the teacher to identify and clarify problems, collect data from a supervisor, and develop solutions with the aid of the supervisor. Traditional supervision tends to place the supervisor in a role superior to that of the teacher, thus telling the teacher what needs to be changed and how to achieve such change. Clinical supervision enables teachers to become more self-directed while traditional supervision tends to render teachers overly dependent on others. In the clinical supervisory process, both supervisor and teacher are assumed to be instructional experts. The teacher identifies the problems and the supervisor assists him/her in analyzing the lesson and in developing improved lessons. They work as colleagues respecting the contribution of each other.

The behavior throughout the clinical supervisory process manifests this collegial relationship between teacher and supervisor. This relationship provides a new role for the teacher within which she is required to make professional judgments. It does allow the teacher the academic freedom to make decisions regarding her classroom instruction and thereby eliminating an area of potential conflict between teacher and supervisor. Traditional supervision, on the other hand, tends to assume that the supervisor is the instructional expert.

The clinical supervision process is distinct from the teacher evaluation process; consequently, it is not advisable for the same person to be responsible for both processes. School administrators who must carry out both processes would need to design an appropriate evaluation procedure which is totally distinct from the supervisory procedure. The inclusion of evaluation as a part of the clinical supervisory model would have the potential to change the environment associated with evaluation from one of suspicion, fear, and mistrust to a problem–solving atmosphere. Allowing existing administrators to function as clinical supervisors would help alleviate the costs associated with clinical supervision. These costs are high. Training of clinical supervisors is expensive. Since clinical supervision demands more time, energy, and skill than is usually required of a supervisor, fewer teachers can be served in a given period of time than when traditional supervisory techniques were used. New personnel would then need to be hired, thus increasing considerably the total cost of supervision. Consequently, the costs of using clinical supervision, as it was originally designed, would become prohibitive for most schools.

Research in education during the past twenty years supports the view that there is no one method of assessing teacher effectiveness. "Humans learn through self-exploration, collaboration, and conditioning." Research indicated that, even within each individual, learning variations exist.

The study suggests that the individual first recognize the need in the learner and then develop the appropriate method of learning to meet this need. Similarly, Glickman discovers from research that methods of developing teachers are as varied as the stages of teacher growth. The challenge of the supervisor is to match the method of supervision to the developmental stage of the teacher. Such "supervisory eclecticism" will lead to "powerful and effective" teacher growth and improvement of instruction will result.

2.
Trust —Intentions Are the Message

Diane Zimmerman
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From my earliest years, I can remember asking about trust. It was my grandmother who once told me, "A person you can trust is someone who you would be willing to let run your life!" As an educational leader, I have no desire to turn my life over to another; however, I am still reflecting upon trust.

In many ways my reflections are the same; it is the circumstances that are different. Trust is an important aspect of life that influences all aspects of human interaction. Even though trust is a commonly used word, fundamental definitions and research to support its importance are lacking. The purpose of this article is to describe tangible elements of a trusting relationship.

Trust is a long-term relationship between two people. A common metaphor is that we "build trust." Implicit in this view is that it takes time and work to establish a trusting relationship. It also implies a hierarchical relationship. The first meeting lays the foundation for future interactions. It is rare on a first meeting for two people to emphatically say they trust each other. Instead, it is more common, after a first meeting, to say things like, "I have a sense that I could trust that person," or "The rapport we had was wonderful."

Hoy and Kupersmith (1984) at Rutgers University assessed faculty trust in the principal in order to develop and test a reliable set of measures. The first conclusion they made was that high levels of trust in the leader (in this case the principal) correlated with higher levels of trust between staff members and also in the staff's trust of the central office. The second conclusion was that the principals who received high scores from their subordinates had three personality characteristics that they described collectively as "authenticity." Principals who took responsibility for their actions and did not shirk responsibility or blame others were highly ranked. An absence of manipulative behavior by the principal was also highly valued. In other words, the principal had positive intentions that were for the improvement of the school, not for his or her own personal gain. And finally, a salience of self over role. This means that the leader operated as a person first and in a role second.

Trust is strongly linked to a general confidence and overall optimism in occurring events. In fact, the stronger the trusting relationship the more likely two people are to resolve a relationship problem. A high degree of trust in both parties almost guarantees that the problem will be resolved.

If trust is a long-term relationship, how should one describe those feelings of trust that are more short term? The most appropriate English word seems to be rapport. It is derived from the French verb "rapporteur," meaning to bring back or refer. Implicit in the meaning is the reciprocity of the relationship. English dictionaries most often define trust as a harmonious relationship.

A definition from science provides a foundation for a fundamental understanding of rapport. Scientists describe a universal phenomenon in the physical world called entrainment. Entrainment describes the phenomenon that whenever two or more oscillators in the same field are pulsing at nearly the same time they tend to "lock in" so

that they are pulsing at exactly the same time. George Leonard, 1978, describes entrainment as follows:

> In music, the miracle of entrainment is made explicit. The performer's every gesture, every micromovement, must be perfectly entrained with the pulse of the music, or else the performance falls apart. Watch the members of a chamber group—how they move as one, become as one, a single field. . . .

All living things are oscillators, from the simplest single celled organism to the complex configuration of the human. William Condon, 1975, of the Boston University School of Medicine, was the first to apply this principal to human behavior. He studied the relation of conventional gestures to verbal material using film to break the human interactions into micromovements. His discovery of entrainment is described as follows:

> Listeners were observed to move in precise shared synchrony with the speaker's speech. This appears to be a form of entrainment since there is no discernible lag even at 1/48 second. . . . It also appears to be a universal characteristic of human communication, and perhaps characterizes much of animal behavior in general. Communication is thus like a dance, with everyone engaged in intricate and shared movements across many subtle dimensions, yet all strangely oblivious that they are doing so . . . Such synchronization appears to occur continuously if the interactants remain attentive and involved. . . .

So when a listener and speaker remain attentive and involved it is not unusual to find an accompanying physiological response. It is no wonder that most of us describe rapport as a sense or a gut level feeling. Bandler and Grinder (1979) established the validity of other forms of match, including voice tone, rate of speech, gesture, and even heart rate. They also described the match of modality-specific speech that occurs when rapport between two people is present. This means that, when interacting, one can establish rapport by taking the lead and matching (mirroring) body posture, gesture, voice tone, and/or rate of speech. Taking this lead will cause a subconscious accentuation in the sense that the two people are similar. It is no surprise that when rapport exists between two people it is described as "seeing eye-to-eye," "being in harmony," or "feeling comfortable" with the other. Another benefit is the ability to observe for evidence of physiological rapport. Because this physical matching occurs spontaneously, one need only pay attention from time to time to discover if the other person is matching with physiological behavior. Recently I was with a friend and we were in deep conversation. As we talked, I became conscious of the dance between our two bodies. At one point we were both leaning way back in our chairs with hands clasped behind our heads, oblivious to the fact that we were mirroring posture. On the converse, when I am talking with another and I feel uneasy, out of rapport, a quick check of the mirror reveals a lack of match on any level. Beginning to match on at least one level causes an immediate easing of tensions. One can verify this phenomenon by watching groups of people anywhere. Likewise, evidence of matching voice tone and rate can be found on any TV sitcom. It is common for the main characters to find themselves in a dilemma together; the ranting and raving is convincing only if the voice tone and rate match each other.

To match another on any level, one must pay close attention to the other person and what s/he is saying if one wishes to establish rapport. It is the intention behind the action that communicates. If the intention is to mirror, but not listen, the speaker gets a subjective feeling of discomfort. This discomfort is often labeled manipulation—that feeling of irritation because the other person is trying to obtain something from the listener. At the same time, the listener is not sure what is wanted or does not want to give it.

Sometimes it is the message that communicates manipulation. Have you ever been in a situation in which you felt that another was talking down to you? The conversation might go something like, "Not everyone is so fortunate, some of us had to work hard to get to where we are." First implied is that the speaker got to where they were by hard work and that the listener got there by some other means. The intonation would convey further meanings about a superior-subordinate relationship. These embedded messages are defined as presuppositions.

Presuppositions are tacit knowledge that a native speaker of a language has about the meaning of the message. For example, if someone said, "Even you could pass that class," native speakers of English would know that you are not a very good student and that the class is not difficult. Neither of these pieces of information are in the surface structure of the message. Rather, they are embedded in the intonation and the underlying meaning of the sentence. When presuppositions

have negative messages embedded in them they speak directly to the emotions. The listener in the examples above cannot help but feel some resentment towards the speaker.

Knowing how to analyze the presuppositions behind one's language is an asset for the educational leader. Sometimes one's own agendas can unknowingly creep into the message. Consider the sentence, "I'll do it, we don't want mistakes." The presuppositions in this message are: I (the speaker) will do it without mistakes and anyone else will make errors. Another example would be, "I'm looking for just the right person." This is an interesting comment as it implies that I am looking at you and I have not found the right person or the person we are talking about is not the right person. On a more subtle level, one can analyze the messages embedded in communications to obtain more precision in language. Compare these two sentences: "What are you doing with the students today?" or "What have you planned for today?" The response from most teachers would most likely be the same for both these questions. However, the teacher who routinely "wings it" might answer the second question differently. They might respond, "I did not spend as much time planning as I had hoped," or "I have taught this lesson so often, I did not really plan today." Both pieces of information are valuable and would have been lost with the first question. Understanding the value of the presuppositions allows the speaker to be more precise in his or her questioning.

To conclude, communication is the intention; these tools and techniques provide a foundation only to the degree that there is an earnest desire to hear and be heard. Knowing and cultivating the trust-building personality traits, learning how to establish and measure rapport, and analyzing one's own language for presuppositions provide the educational leader with the ability to communicate positive intentions and build many trusting relationships.

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3.
The Goals of Instructional Supervision

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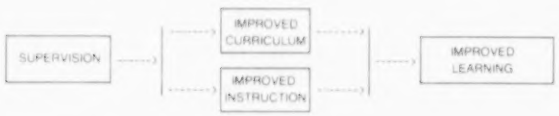
The purpose of instructional supervision is to improve curriculum and instructional practices that ultimately will result in greater achievement of student learning.

Figure 1



If we can agree on this premise, then what does it mean to supervise? Following are some guidelines that educators may wish to consider as they plan for the development, installation, and evaluation of quality supervisory systems. Three major questions are addressed:

I. What should be the outcomes for the people involved in the supervisory process?

II. By what evidence might the achievement of those outcomes be observed?

III. What supervisory competencies would facilitate the achievement of those outcomes?

On the next pages, each of these questions is explored and discussed.

I. WHAT SHOULD BE THE OUTCOMES FOR THE PEOPLE INVOLVED IN THE SUPERVISORY PROCESS?

Three outcomes of supervision are suggested. These three hold true for any supervisory system whether it be between teacher and student, superintendent and administrator, or teacher and principal. They are:

1. CREATING AND MANAGING TRUST
2. FACILITATING LEARNING
3. DEVELOPING *AUTONOMY*

Each of these goals is explained as follows:

1. TRUST: There should be, with each successive supervisory conference, a greater feeling of mutual trust between the individuals involved in the process. Trust is a basic condition which must be developed and maintained in order for the other two goals, learning and autonomy, to be achieved. A primary task for the supervisor, therefore, is to create and manage a climate of trust between him or herself and the supervisee.

2. LEARNING: As a result of every supervisory process, both the supervisor and the supervisee should learn something: about themselves, about each other's belief system, the students, the content of the lesson, about instructional methods, or about this process of supervision.

3. AUTONOMY: As a result of supervisory efforts over time, the supervisee should become more self-supervising—more autonomous. This means that teachers will be performing the cognitive processes of supervision for themselves—voluntarily and spontaneously without the need for a supervisor's intervention. The supervisee will achieve a higher degree of self-awareness, self-evaluation, and self-modifiability. Over time, the supervisee will depend less and less on the supervisor for diagnostic and prescriptive interventions and will become more self-diagnostic and self-prescriptive. Likewise, the supervisor will grow in his/her ability to evaluate his/her own capacities for facilitating the autonomy of others.

II. BY WHAT EVIDENCE MIGHT THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THESE OUTCOMES BE OBSERVED?

To know whether these outcomes are being approached, some observable behaviors would be evident:

1. An assessment of the quality of TRUST might be made by searching supervisory dialogue for such behaviors as:

Expressing honest feelings by both the supervisor and supervisee.

Defining criteria for what is meant by value judgments if any are made.

Listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically by both the supervisor and supervisee.

Focusing on problems of mutual concern.

Proposing alternative solutions to problems.

Clarifying ideas, alternatives, purposes, beliefs, or strategies.

Maintaining eye contact.

Sustaining an open body posture.

Expressing willingness to support and experiment with each other's ideas.

2. An assessment of the quality of LEARNING resulting from the supervisory process should reflect knowledge and applications of the basic principles of human developmental sequences and variability in adult learning. Some of the theorists who have contributed to developmental theory include Jean Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg, Jerome Bruner, Hilda Taba, Robert Wirtz, Frances Fuller, Eric Erickson, and Malcolm Knowles.

Jerome Bruner and Jean Piaget have helped us see that learning progresses through developmental stages from the concrete, sensory, and enactive stages involved in direct experience—through the representational and figural stages involved with visual experiences—to the more abstract, symbolic stages involving indirect and semantic thinking.

Figure 2

Benjamin Bloom, Hilda Taba, Reuven Feuerstein, and others have constructed a model of thinking which progresses through increasingly "higher" levels of thinking from simply recalling information; through the processing or making meaning out of the information; to the application of ideas in novel situations.

Robert Wirtz has combined these two concepts of thinking—the developmental and the hierarchical—into an intriguing and helpful model:

Figure 3

If supervisory efforts are to result in LEARNING then there should be some change in the supervisee's thinking which, in turn, results in a change in behavior. This diagram suggests that a way to increase the possibility for changing behavior is to move from the recall of concrete experiences—through the processing of visions and images—toward the independent investigation of symbols using abstract thinking. The diagonal line represents this direction of movement which is consistent with these two powerful theories of

human learning. If our model of supervision is to include learning as a goal, then the process should be consistent with how adult human beings learn. To disregard these theories by merely using hollow, abstract admonitions to change instructional behaviors or philosophical attitudes will prove to be ineffective.

A supervisory dialogue might be assessed for its contribution to LEARNING by the degree to which it progresses along this diagonal and would be evidenced by a sequencing of such cognitive processes as:

Recalling data about student behaviors gathered during a teaching episode.

Recalling data about teacher behaviors and strategies performed during the lesson.

Comparing desired student performance with actual student performance.

Making inferences about the achievement of the objectives based on the data gathered.

Analyzing why the objectives were or were not achieved.

Applying those inferences in future situations of a similar nature.

Predicting outcomes of future instructional situations when similar objectives are sought using the same or alternative teaching strategies and behaviors.

Evaluating the appropriateness of the curriculum and instructional strategies for these particular learners.

It should be apparent that the above sequence of cognitive acts closely parallels Bloom's Taxonomy. If learning is to be an outcome of supervision, then a model of learning needs to be incorporated into the supervisory system.

3. Evidence of increased AUTONOMY might be demonstrated by the supervisor and supervisee both:

Becoming increasingly aware of their own behaviors.

Becoming increasingly aware of the effects their behaviors have on others.

Experimenting with and searching for the effects of their own behaviors on others.

Striving to increase their repertoire of teaching strategies and supervisory behaviors.

Analyzing, evaluating, and modifying their own behaviors and strategies based upon the data gathered and analyzing the effects that their behaviors have on others.

The search for indicators of the teacher's growing AUTONOMY would evidence a shift FROM the attitude that thinking and planning have little value, that one lesson design is a good as any other, and that the supervisor's role is to tell teachers what is good or bad, right or wrong with their teaching; TO the viewing of instructional problems as challenging, finding fun in experimenting with instructional design, and voluntarily self-analyzing and self-prescribing. Some examples of this shift toward more AUTONOMY might be exemplified by the following behaviors described at each level of thinking:

Figure 4

FROM DEPENDENCY	TO AUTONOMY
INPUT	
Exhibits difficulty in ascertaining what is required for lesson design. Gives inadequate attention to details; is non-specific and haphazard with objectives and teaching strategies. If unable to solve instructional problems, gives up in despair or blames the students.	Demonstrates a systematic plan of attack. Takes time and makes directed effort to organize lessons. If unable to solve instructional problems as a whole, perseveres by using such strategies as analysis or breaking down the problem into its component parts.
PROCESSING	
Is unable to bring forth relevant knowledge and information to bear when designing lessons or teaching strategies. Perceives no relationship between present and previous problem situations.	Commands the theoretical and basic information necessary for the solution of instructional problems as well as the ability to bring forth this knowledge from memory when attacking similar instructional problems.
OUTPUT	
Introduces personal consideration into problem solving. Is unable to extract subjective feelings and opinions from problem solutions.	Reasons systematically and supports ideas with logical evidence. Expresses confidence with a problem solution.

III. WHAT SUPERVISORY COMPETENCIES FACILITATE THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THESE OUTCOMES?

The achievement of these outcomes is dependent upon the supervisor and the supervisee utilizing certain skills and abilities.

1. They both must be able to create a climate of TRUST by:

Keeping in mind the goals of supervision—Trust, Learning, and Autonomy; and the overall supervisory strategy or mental "map" for how to achieve those outcomes. This also requires:

Knowing that growth is incremental, gradual and personal.

Viewing the supervisory role, therefore, as facilitative and long term—two to three years or more.

Realizing that the supervisee does not need to be "fixed," changed, or transformed in this conference, this semester, or even this year.

Removing impediments to trust by selecting a location for their interaction which is neutral and free from distractions, and avoiding times or situations that are particularly stressful.

Refraining from making value judgments.

Being alert to and accurately interpreting sensorial cues coming from the supervisee such as: tone of voice, body posture, eye movements, and gestures.

Listening and responding congruently by matching the supervisee's representational system, belief system, cognitive style, and level of concern.

Listening for and accurately identifying the emotion and level of intensity of the emotional state of the supervisee.

Stating desirable behaviors in positive terms.

Working toward testable solutions to problems.

Having outcomes that are within the supervisee's ability and control.

2. Supervision for intelligent teaching implies that LEARNING involves a rearrangement, a restructuring, or a refinement of the teacher's inner realities, visions, and thought processes. Supervisory behaviors which facilitate learning include:

Diagnosing the supervisee's cognitive style, modality preference, level of concern, belief system, and decision-making strategy; then having the flexibility to draw upon a repertoire of interactive behaviors to be congruent with those of the supervisee.

Questioning—one of the most basic skills of supervision. Effective questioning can stimulate the performance of certain cognitive tasks. Questions can call forth logical evidence to support assumptions, they can clarify and probe for specifics, or they can elicit the inner workings of the mind.

Embedded in the syntax of the supervisor's questions and other statements are the cues for a teacher's cognitive performance. Questions can cause a lifting from one level of thinking to another. By manipulating the syntactical structure of questions and other statements, the supervisor can invite the teacher to intake information, to compare that information with what is in memory, to draw meaningful relationships, to apply or transfer those relationships to hypothetical situations, and to evaluate alternative outcomes.

Page 90 contains some examples of supervisory questions and the types of cognitive operations they are intended to elicit in the mind of the supervisee.

Listening skills serve the supervisor in diagnosing the level of supervisee's AUTONOMY by the latter's ability to spontaneously and voluntarily:

State instructional objectives in specific, observable terms.

Justify why those particular lesson objectives and teaching strategies are being used.

Recall and compare his/her own planned and actual behavior and the planned and actual behavior of the students.

Assume responsibility for the outcomes of the lesson. (Internal locus of control.)

Using the skills of questioning and listening, the supervisor may gain information about the self-directedness and self-awareness of the supervisee. The supervisor may then use this diagnostic data as a basis for planning supervisory strategies and in-service experiences appropriate to the model of learning presented above. The supervisor must act upon this diagnostic data as a basis for helping the supervisee to become more autonomous. If these behaviors are desireable, then the supervisor may also examine his/her own effectiveness for the degree to which he/she elicits these behaviors in the supervisee.

Most cueing, however, comes NOT from the supervisor's questions or statements, but rather from the supervisor's response behaviors. How teachers anticipate the supervisor will respond to their answers to questions may exert greater influence on their answers than the questions that the supervisor asks.

Response behaviors which facilitate intellectual functioning are:

Using silence after having asked a question or after the teacher responds.

Accepting, building upon, integrating, and extending the teacher's ideas.

Clarifying ideas, feeling, terminology, beliefs, and strategies.

Probing for the mental processes that the teacher uses before, during and after instruction (Metacognition).

SUPERVISOR'S QUESTIONS	WHICH ELICIT	SUPERVISEE'S BEHAVIORS
"What did you observe your students doing?"		Recalling student behaviors observed during the teaching episode.
"What did you do to cause your students to perform that way?"		Stating causal relationships.
"How did what you observed your students doing compare with what you had planned for them?"		Comparing desired student performance with actual student performance.
"How does what you did compare with what you had planned to do?"		Comparing teacher behaviors/strategies planned with those that were performed.
"What were you thinking of when you . . . (used a particular teaching behavior)"		Employing metacognition.
"Do you think the objectives were achieved? What did you observe that causes you to think so?"		Making inferences as to the achievement of the lesson objectives. Supporting inferences with observable supporting data.
"Why do you think your objectives (were/were not) achieved?"		Analyzing why the desired objectives were/were not achieved.
"What might you do differently in future lessons of this sort?"		Prescribing alternative strategies that might be employed.
"Why do you think it is important for your students to learn this?"		Evaluating the appropriateness of the curriculum and instructional strategy.
"What has this supervisory dialogue caused you to think about?"		Reflecting on own thought processes (Introspection).
"What might I do differently in future sessions that would be of help to you?"		Inviting evaluation of the supervisor's effectiveness (Modeling).

Providing or making information available when the teacher needs or requests it.

With imitation being a most basic form of learning, supervisor's modeling of desired intellectual behaviors is requisite to teacher performance. Thus, when problems arise in the day-to-day events in the school, teachers must observe the supervisor employing the same types of intellectual behaviors desired for effective teaching: planning, considering alternatives, restraining their impulsivity, reflecting another person's point of view, and responding empathically.

In summary, this has been an attempt to describe three major goals of supervision: TRUST, LEARNING and AUTONOMY. Indicators were described to help assess the existence and achievement of the three outcomes. Finally, supervisory skills that contribute to the achievement of these outcomes were identified. As a result of applying these supervisory goals, indicators, and competencies, it is hoped that curriculum and instructional practices will be enhanced and, as a result, students' learning will increase.

4. Supervision for Intelligent Teaching

ARTHUR L. COSTA AND ROBERT GARMSTON

Supervision can help teachers make better instructional decisions by enhancing their cognitive abilities.

During the past decade, a great deal of educational research and staff development effort has been devoted to identifying the *behaviors* of teaching. The teaching act has been dissected into various components, each of which has been correlated with student achievement test scores. Those behaviors that have correlated highly with achievement have become the basis for teacher preparation, evaluation, supervision, and staff development. Supervisors have been trained to observe, record, and positively reinforce teachers' use of these behaviors.

While behavioral training is helpful for some teachers, it has shortcomings. One is the fallacy that the act of teaching can be reduced to scientific, quantifiable, scalar values, for instance, counting the number of higher-level questions a teacher asks and then correlating that number with student achievement. This approach overlooks the teacher's decisions about *when* to ask *which* level of question under *what* circumstances. It also fails to consider what experiences or knowledge the teacher relies on in deciding which particular behavior to use and the intended effect of that behavior on student learning. Teaching has been described as a constant

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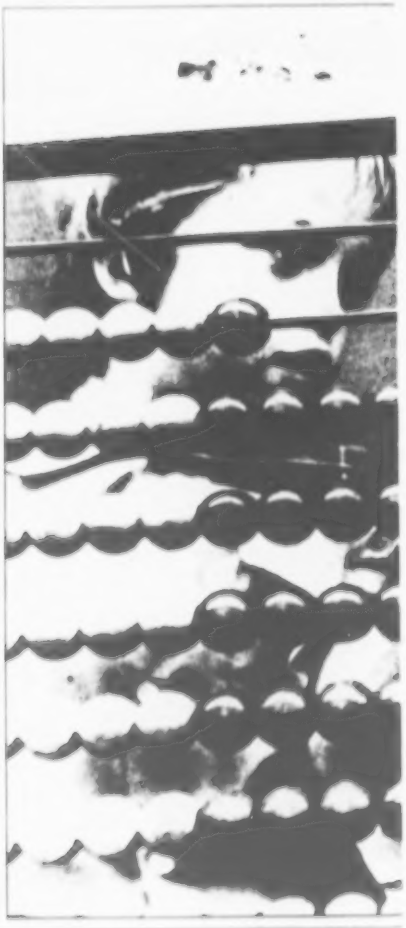


Reprinted from *Educational Leadership* 42 (Feb. 1985): 70-80.

Figure 1. The Interrelationship of Teachers' Attitudes, Thinking, and Behaviors.

If the goal of teaching is to enhance student learning

STUDENT LEARNING

- Attitudes
- Skills
- Concepts
- Values
- Self-worth

And we know that certain teacher behaviors affect student learning,

TEACHER BEHAVIORS

- Questioning
- Structuring
- Responding
- Modeling

And those teacher behaviors are influenced by the teacher's thinking and decision-making processes,

TEACHER THINKING

- Planning
- Selecting from a repertoire
- Locus of control
- Detecting subtle cues
- Egocentrism
- Analysis
- Introspection

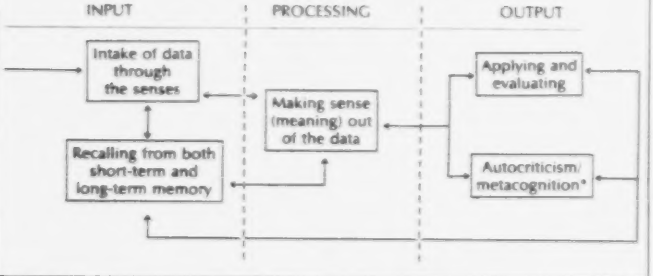
And teachers' thinking and decision making are influenced by their beliefs, values, styles, culture,

TEACHER ATTITUDES

- Belief system
- Culture
- Modality performance
- Cognitive style
- Emotional state
- Level of concern

Then supervision needs to account for more than just teacher behaviors. Altering behaviors without affecting the inner thought processes is meaningless.

Figure 2. Information Processing.



stream of decisions (Hunter, 1979). Jackson (1968) estimates that teachers make as many as 1,300 decisions each day. In making these decisions, teachers use *intelligent* processes to guide their teaching behaviors (Blumberg, 1974; Ryan, 1979; Glickman, 1980). Superior teachers know how to select specific teaching acts from their repertoire of behaviors based on what they know about their learners, the teaching task, and the instructional situation. They know how a particular act fits into a larger strategy and can predict the effects of that act on student learning. The aim of supervision and staff development, therefore, should be to help teachers make better decisions about instruction. In other words, it should appeal to, capitalize on, and enhance teachers' *cognitive processes* (Sprinthall and Theis-Sprinthall, 1983).

Figure 1 illustrates how student learning is related to teacher attitudes, thinking, and behaviors. Supervision should strive to enhance those intellectual skills that ultimately serve to increase learning.

Enhancing Teachers' Thinking Skills

Figure 2, which omits such important concepts as affect, motivation, and perceptual abilities, nevertheless attempts to summarize many psychological and psychobiological concepts of human information processing, which can serve as a basis for supervisory decision making.

According to this model, the individual constantly interprets information in terms of what is already known. If a teacher can easily understand new information based on existing knowledge (*assimilation*), then there is no problem or challenge. If, however, the teacher cannot assimilate the new information, that information must be processed, more information collected, and the ultimate resolution tested for its fit with the teacher's reality (*accommodation*). Thus, a problem may be defined as a stimulus or challenge to which the response may not be readily apparent.

The supervisor, then, is a crucial mediator of teachers' intelligent behavior. To stimulate the teacher's intellectual skills, the supervisor calls attention to discrepancies between intended and actual learning outcomes and poses problems intended to invite more than a memory-type response (Fishler, 1971). The supervisor's questions and statements can be designed to elicit specific cognitive functions

that produce data, relationships, and generalizations to help resolve the problem.

Teaching decisions fall into four categories: *planning* (the preactive stage), *teaching* (the interactive stage), *analyzing and evaluating* (the reflective stage), and *applying* (the projective stage).

Planning: The Preactive Stage

Planning consists of those intellectual functions performed prior to instruction. Psychologists have found that capable adults can handle and coordinate an average of only seven (plus or minus two) different variables, decisions, or disparate pieces of information at any one time (Miller, 1956). When they approach the limits of their capacity, they begin to feel tension and loss of control. Much intellectual energy is invested in techniques and systems to simplify, reduce, and select the number of variables with which the intellect has to deal. Planning helps to reduce the stress (Harvey, 1966).

Yinger (1977) identified five frames of planning: long-range, term, monthly, weekly, daily. During planning a teacher can:

- Evoke thought experiments or mental rehearsals of activities in anticipation of possible events and consequences.
- Describe cues—definitions of acceptable student performance—for learning, and thus simplify judgments about appropriate and inappropriate student behaviors.
- Select potential solutions, back-up procedures, and alternative strategies for those times when a learning activity needs to be redirected, changed, or terminated (Newell and Simon, 1972).

Since planning is the design phase upon which the other three phases rest, it includes some of the most important decisions teachers make. Planning basically involves four components (Shavelson, 1976, p. 385; Shavelson and Stern, 1981):

1. Developing descriptions of student learning that are to result from instruction. These are predicted in explicit or observable student behaviors. Zahorik (1975) found this a low priority for teachers, however.

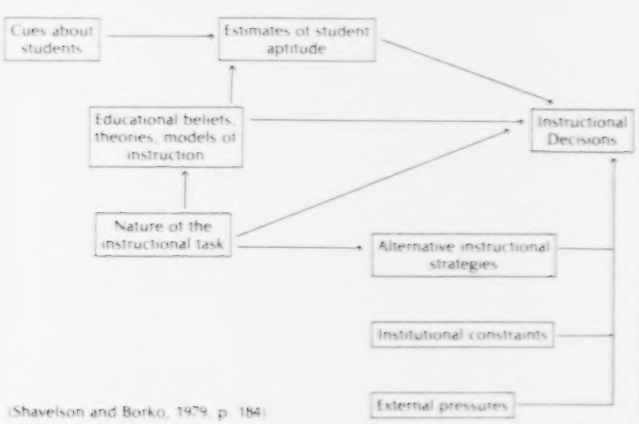
2. Identifying the student's present capabilities or entry knowledge. Information about students is drawn from such sources as previous teaching learning experiences, data from school records and test scores, and clues from parents, previous teachers, and counselors (Shavelson, 1977; Borko, Cone, Russo, and Shavelson, 1979). To handle this information overload, teachers probably synthesize much of this information into hypotheses, or best guesses, about student readiness for learning. They estimate the probability of successful student behavior as a result of instruction (Goladarchi, 1959). Planning a lesson using information about students requires a teacher to overcome egocentrism and to view the learning from the student's point of view—how the lesson will be perceived and received by the student.

3. Envisioning the characteristics of an instructional sequence or strategy that will most likely move students from their present capabilities toward immediate and long-range instructional outcomes. Planning a teaching strategy requires task analysis—both structural and operational. *Structural* analysis is the process of breaking down the content into its component parts, while *operational* analysis involves arranging events into a logical sequence of learning activities (Clark and Yinger, 1979). This sequence is derived from whatever theories or models of teaching, learning, or motivation the teacher has adopted.

4. Anticipating a method of evaluating outcomes. This evaluation provides a basis for making decisions about the design of the next cycle of instruction.

During the planning phase, the teacher can use a wealth of information because there is enough time to call it from memory. Factors that teachers may take into consideration during instructional planning are represented in Figure 3. Planning may be done in a formal setting—thinking, writing, and devoting attention to it—or informally—while driving to work, washing dishes, and so forth. This unpressured planning contrasts sharply with the interactive phase of teaching, when teachers must respond quickly to the immediate demands of the situation without time to reflect before acting.

Figure 3. A Model of Instructional Planning



(Shavelson and Borko, 1979, p. 184)

Education, 1985

"Superior teachers not only know how to ask a range of questions; they also know *when* to ask them."

Joel Gordon

Teaching: The Interactive Stage

The *teaching* stage includes all decisions made during the immediacy and spontaneity of classroom interactions. These decisions are probably more intuitive and unconscious than the rational decisions of the planning phase because in the process of constantly interacting with students, teachers are often under pressure and in a state of uncertainty. There may be little time to consider alternative teaching strategies and the consequences of each, and insufficient data about students readiness for learning may be observed or recalled (Caltee, 1981). The capacity to juggle these many factors simultaneously is a prerequisite to effective classroom teaching.

Superior teachers have the capacity to operate under *multiple classification systems* simultaneously. This capacity means that they can teach toward both immediate and long-range goals concurrently. They perceive relationships between day-to-day student behaviors and their cumulative progress toward long-range educational outcomes, and they can prioritize goals and objectives so that they know which student behaviors to reinforce and which to ignore. They can simultaneously orchestrate multiple student activities, teaching strategies, and learning modalities (Kounin, 1970).

A teaching strategy is a plan of action that includes a sequentially ordered set of teacher behaviors designed to produce a desired student outcome. Keeping the script or planned strategy in memory while teaching allows teachers to make temporal and comparative judgments, to assess student readiness for more or different learnings, and to monitor their own interpretations, perceptions, decisions, and behaviors. This self awareness is referred to as *metacognition* (Berliner, 1982; Rohrkemper, 1982).

Rigney (1980) identified the following self-monitoring skills as necessary for successful performance on intellectual tasks: keeping one's place in a long sequence of operations, knowing that a subgoal has been obtained, detecting errors, and recovering from those errors by making a quick fix or by retreating to the last known correct operation. Such monitoring involves both looking ahead and looking back. Looking ahead includes learning the structure of a sequence of operations, identifying areas where errors are likely, choosing a strategy that will reduce the possibility of error and provide easy recovery, identifying the kinds of feedback that will be available at various points, and evaluating the usefulness of these kinds of feedback.

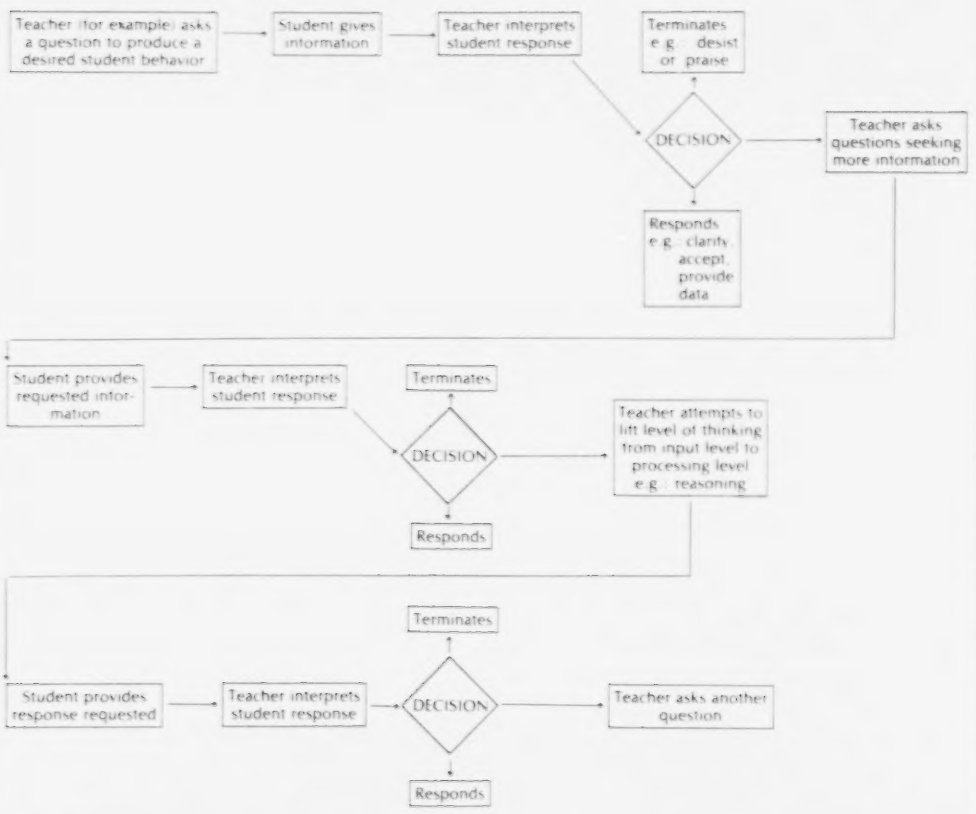
Looking back includes detecting errors previously made, keeping a history of what has been done to the present and thereby what should come next, and assessing the rationality of the present immediate outcome of task performance.

Thus, the teacher must make temporal decisions as to when and how fast to move through the steps in a sequence. When are students properly motivated? How much data should be considered? When is there an adequate data base on which to predict successful thinking if a higher level question were to be asked? For example, at the beginning of a lesson it may be best to structure the task and motivate students to become curious, involved, and focused. Later the teacher might need to use recall questions to have students review previously learned information and to gather data to be considered later. Still later, the teacher might invite higher level thinking (Doyle, 1979).

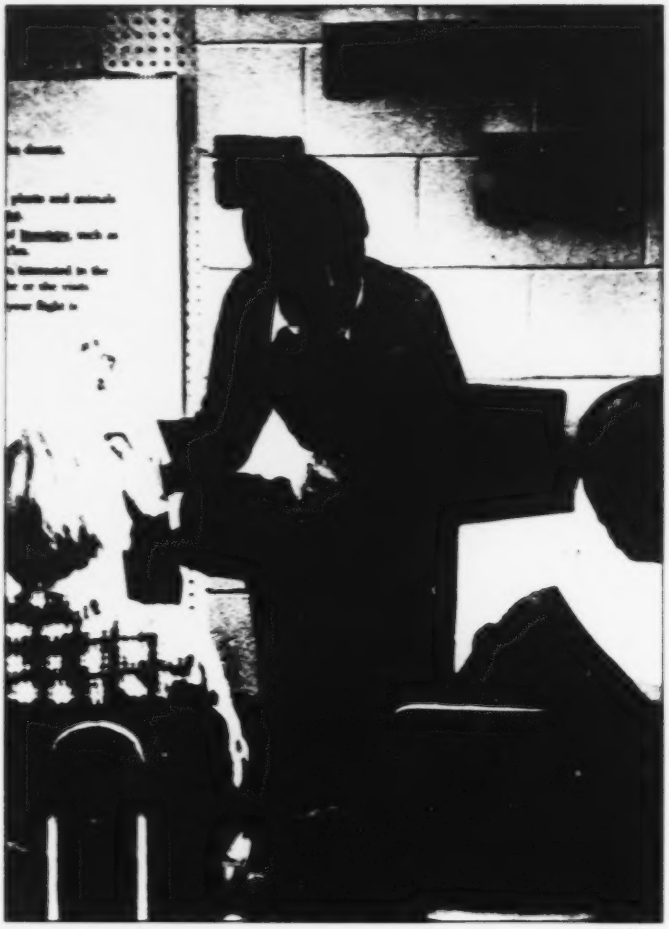
During the interactive stage, the teacher constantly questions, probes, observes, and interprets student behaviors and decides whether to move ahead in the sequence or remain at the present step (Figure 4).

Thus, the teacher may ask a question to elicit diagnostic information about a student. The teacher then analyzes that information and decides

Figure 4. Interactive Teaching Decision-Making Flow Chart.


Teacher (for example) asks a question to produce a desired student behavior
Student gives information
Teacher interprets student response
Terminates e.g., desist or praise
DECISION
Teacher asks questions seeking more information
Responds e.g., clarify, accept, provide data
Student provides requested information
Teacher interprets student response
Terminates
DECISION
Teacher attempts to lift level of thinking from input level to processing level e.g., reasoning
Responds
Terminates
Student provides response requested
Teacher interprets student response
DECISION
Teacher asks another question
Responds

Adapted from Marland, 1982



Daniel Ireen

what to do next: should the student's response be praised, extinguished, clarified, or extended?

Superior teachers not only know how to ask a range of questions, they also know *when* to ask them. They know how to select from a repertoire of teaching strategies and to predict outcomes. Keeping a strategy in mind helps in making these decisions. Without a strategy, classroom interaction is unfocused, random, and chaotic.

Teaching strategies also provide a screening mechanism by which teachers can select relevant and often subtle cues out of the myriad signals students send. To manage the continual flow of events, teachers must constantly monitor the classroom environment and be alert to student cues. Cues, such as on-task behavior and student success, provide an information feedback system on which decisions are based (Rohrkemper, 1982; Berliner, 1982).

Because students constantly send out information about themselves, the teacher's conscious processing of this information can only be directed to a selected number of task-relevant cues. With a teaching strategy in mind, task-relevant cues are noticed more rapidly, and irrelevant cues are discarded (Berliner, 1982; Kounin, 1970). After seeing or hearing a particular student behavior, the teacher interprets the cue by either assigning a meaning for it from memory or constructing a new meaning. The teacher can then either design or call from past experience the most appropriate behavior to use to respond. Although teachers possess impressive amounts of data and perceptions about students, they seldom verify the accuracy of their interpretations about students' cognitive and affective states. The validity of their interpretations and their choices of subsequent behavior, therefore, might be questionable (Marland, 1982).

Superior teachers appear to control their emotional, impulsive reactions to events (Doyle, 1979). Classroom cues received through the unconscious can build up over time and disrupt conscious information processing. Restraining impulsive or emotional reactions to such cues is necessary for the teacher to reserve capacity for imme-

"Autonomous teachers reflect upon, conceptualize, accumulate, and apply understandings from one classroom experience to the next."

diate classroom decisions. This restraint also provides students with a model of how to deal with similar problems in and out of school, now and in the future (Calfee, 1981; Feuerstein, 1980).

Routines and management systems are especially helpful in dealing with the information processing demands of the immediacy, spontaneity, and unpredictability of classrooms. Routines reduce the need to attend to the abundance of simultaneous cues from students. Teachers who have established automatic routines can attend to cues that signal discrepancies and abnormalities rather than dealing with all student behaviors all the time

Some Indicators of Teacher's Intellectual Autonomy

I. PLANNING (The Preactive Phase)	Performed autonomously by teacher	Performed only when invited by supervisor	Must be performed by supervisor
1. States relationship between this lesson and larger, long-range goal. 2. Provides descriptions of student learnings that will result from this instruction. 3. Envisions, describes an instructional strategy: _____ Content _____ Time sequencing _____ Group/structuring _____ Sequence of learning activities _____ Repertoire of teaching behaviors 4. Identifies data about students: previous learnings/entry/capabilities, and so on. 5. Anticipates a method of evaluating outcomes.			
II. TEACHING (The Interactive Phase)	High degree—as evidenced by:	Somewhat—as evidenced by:	Low degree—as evidenced by:
1. Deals with multiple activities (classification systems) simultaneously. 2. Uses clear and precise language. 3. Remembers strategy. 4. Monitors own progress along that strategy (meta-cognition). 5. Restrains impulsivity (ignoring selected behaviors, accepting). 6. Is conscious of and sensitive to behavioral cues coming from students (monitoring). 7. Alters teaching strategy based on cues coming from students (repertoire). 8. Routinizes classroom management tasks.			
III. ANALYZING AND EVALUATING (The Reflective Phase)	Performed autonomously by teacher	Performed only when invited by supervisor	Must be performed by supervisor
1. Recalls data about student and teacher behavior from teaching experience. 2. Makes comparison between intended and actual outcomes. 3. Makes causal relationships as to why objectives were/were not achieved. 4. Self-evaluates own actions of planning, teaching phases (auto-criticism). 5. Displays internal locus of control.			
IV. APPLYING (The Projective Phase)			
1. Predicts or hypothesizes differences in learning outcomes if alternative strategies were to be used. 2. Plans future lesson strategies based upon principles abstracted from the analysis of previous lessons. 3. Makes a commitment to alter/experiment with own behaviors.			

Hunkins, 1985

(Doyle, 1979). Superior teachers develop routine systems for dealing with many classroom management functions (taking roll, distributing papers and books, forming groups) as well as having systematic lesson designs (spelling, math drills) and teaching strategies (questioning sequences, structuring) (Kounin, 1970).

Objectives of the Supervisory Conference

Supervisor Objectives		*Teacher Objectives*
Pre-observation. 1. Elicit and clarify statements of purpose of the lesson (unit, episode, year, individual). 2. Probe for specific observable student behaviors. 3. Probe for the specific teaching strategies/behaviors to be used. 4. Determine what led up to and what will follow this lesson. 5. Invite teacher concerns/hopes for the lesson. 6. Elicit a description of own role in the observation.	AUDITING	Pre-observation. 1. State the purposes of the lesson. 2. Translate the purposes into descriptions of observable student behaviors desired. 3. Describe the teaching strategies/behaviors to be employed to facilitate students' performance of desired behaviors. 4. Describe the sequence in which this lesson occurs. 5. Anticipate any concerns. 6. Describe the role of the observer.
During the lesson. 1. Observe and record teacher behaviors. 2. Observe and record student behaviors.	MONITORING	During the lesson. 1. Utilize the anticipated teaching behaviors/strategies.
Post-observation. 1. Probe for the teacher's intuition/feelings/affect. 2. Ask the teacher to recall the student behavior observed during the lesson to support those feelings. 3. Ask the teacher to recall the teacher behaviors/strategies used during the lesson. 4. Present the teacher with data collected about student behaviors and seek comparison between student behavior performed and student behavior desired. 5. Present the teacher with the data collected about teacher behaviors and seek comparison between teacher behavior performed and teacher behavior planned. 6. Probe for inferences about the achievement of the lesson's purpose. 7. Probe for explanations as to why the student behaviors were/were not performed.	VALIDATING	Post-observation. 1. Express feelings about the lesson. 2. Recall student behaviors observed during the teaching to support feelings. 3. Recall own behavior during the lesson. 4. Compare student behavior performed with student behavior desired. 5. Compare teacher behavior performed with teacher behavior planned. 6. Make inferences as to the achievement of the purposes of the lesson. 7. Analyze why the behaviors were/were not performed.
8. Elicit prescriptions for alternative teaching strategies/behaviors/conditions. 9. Elicit an evaluation of the interview process and supervisor's conference skills.	CONSULTING	8. Prescribe what will/might be done differently in the future. 9. Express feelings about the value of the interview.

Analyzing and Evaluating—The Reflective Stage

Analyzing and evaluating consists of the mental processes used to reflect upon, analyze, and judge teaching acts performed in the immediate past. Analyzing involves collecting and using understandings derived from comparison between actual and intended outcomes of teaching. If there is great similarity between behaviors predicted during the planning stage and those observed during the interactive stage, then there is a match, and no discrepancy exists—*assimilation*. If, on the other hand, there is a mismatch between student behaviors observed and student behaviors intended, a discrepancy exists that must be resolved or explained—*accommodation*. Reasons are given to explain this discrepancy, and cause-and-effect relationships are drawn between instructional conditions and behavioral outcomes (Barr and Brown, 1971; Rohrkemper, 1982).

Evaluating involves judging the worth of decisions made during the planning and interactive phases (Shavelson, 1976). During evaluation, some value is placed on the quality of the teacher's thinking both before and during teaching. This uniquely human intellectual capacity to self-evaluate is what Binet called *auto-criticism* (Whimbey and Whimbey, 1976). It is our ability to stand apart from, contemplate, and evaluate our own actions. It requires a conscious awareness of self-interaction with the real world. Autonomous teachers are aware of their own thinking while they are deciding—*introspection*—and can reflect upon their thinking after they have made a decision—*retrospection* (Clark and Yinger, 1979).

Autonomous teachers have an internal rather than an external locus of control. It is one thing for a supervisor to judge the learning outcomes of a teacher's lesson, but what about teachers' estimates of their own success? (Haroutunian and Yarger, 1981). Teachers may dismiss or distort information that indicates students did not learn as a result of the teaching strategy. They may not be entirely rational when faced with the possibility that the lesson did not produce desired results; they may be more concerned about maintaining a consistent self-image. Teachers often give themselves credit when there is student improvement but place blame elsewhere when performance is inadequate (Harvey, Kelly, and Shapiro, 1957). Classroom observers, however, are much less likely to attribute improvement to the teacher and more likely to attribute decreases to the teacher and to student motivation (Shavelson, 1976).

Teachers who are insecure or who have low self-esteem may allow biases to enter their interpretations. Teachers who have a positive self-image are more likely to hold themselves responsible for the outcomes of teaching—whether positive or negative (Rohrkemper, 1982; Harvey, Kelly, and Shapiro, 1957).

Applying—The Projective Stage

Applying involves learning from experience. As a result of the evaluation and analysis phase, teachers make commitments regarding their future actions. This stage involves abstracting generalizations from experiences and carrying forth those generalizations to future situations. Knowing when to decide is a cognitive skill that results from experience. Experience, however, is not enough. Experiences must be compared, differentiated, categorized, and labeled. Such a system allows the teacher to recognize and interpret classroom events, departures from routines, and novel occurrences. Thus, the teacher can predict the consequences of possible alternatives and directions of activities. Without the conceptual system, the classroom remains a mass of chaos and confusion. Since this knowledge comes through experience, it explains why the demands on inexperienced teachers are so intense; their knowledge is being tested and constructed at the same time (Doyle, 1979).

Some Components of the Supervision Process

1. AUDITING (Planning/Preactive phase)
   - Clarifying goals and objectives
   - Describing teaching strategies
   - Determining evaluation measures and techniques
   - Clarifying the evaluation process
2. MONITORING (Teaching/Interactive phase)
   - Gathering data about student performance of objectives
   - Gathering data about teacher performance of strategies
3. VALIDATING (Analysis and Evaluation/Reflective phase)
   - Sharing data collected about student and teacher performance
   - Comparing what actually happened with what was desired
   - Making inferences about student achievement of objectives
   - Making inferences about teacher performance
   - Drawing cause-and-effect relationships between teacher performance and student achievement
4. CONSULTING (Application/Projective phase)
   - Evaluating appropriateness of desired objectives
   - Prescribing alternative teaching strategies
   - Developing insight into the supervisory process
   - Evaluating the process of supervision

Florio, 1985

Calfee (1981) suggests that much of what we do comes about by reflecting on alternative courses of action, is rooted in analysis of previous experiences, supported by language and capacity for symbol use, guided by the counsel of others, and subject to continuous revision as circumstances dictate.

Autonomous teachers reflect upon, conceptualize, accumulate, and apply understandings from one classroom experience to the next. As concepts about teaching accumulate, teachers become more routinized, particularized, predictable, and refined (Ryan, 1979). The concepts and relationships derived from the analysis and evaluation stage are extrapolated in making future decisions in planning and interactive teaching. During this application stage, teachers formulate hypothetical statements or future plans. Hypotheses might be characterized by "if/then" thinking: "If I were to do this lesson again, I would ___." Future-oriented thinking might include such statements as, "From now on I'm going to ___" or "Next time I'll plan to ___."

Autonomous teachers spontaneously make commitments to change their behaviors and strategies based on self-analysis. This step closes the instructional cycle because it serves as a basis for future planning in the first stage.

Focusing on Teachers' Inner Thinking

These are many, but certainly not all, of the cognitive processes involved in these four components of teaching. This research supports the assertion that supervision should emphasize not only the overt behaviors of teaching but the inner thinking processes as well. Such a focus on enhancing teachers' cognitive abilities will, in turn, increase student learning. □

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5.
Coaching Teacher Cognition

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I'm pleased by the presence of several agendas on the educational horizon, among them the increasing recognition of teacher-as-decision maker. To move this agenda beyond the hypothetical, however, we must locate and apply effective approaches that support and promote informed teacher decision making.

Cognitive Coaching, which specifically focuses on teacher thought, is one such model. Its roots lie in original Goldhammer and Cogan ideas about clinical supervision (a collegial relationship to foster the teacher's freedom to act self-sufficiently) rather than some recent "supervision" models which are often teacher evaluation in disguise.

In Cognitive Coaching, the teacher, not the observer, makes evaluations about what is good, bad, appropriate, inappropriate, effective, ineffective and makes suggestions for improvement. This is important and rewarding, because it is these invisible skills of teaching, the thinking processes that underlie instructional decisions, that produce superior instruction.

Districts which use Cognitive Coaching as a systemwide model for supervision or as a collegial approach to peer coaching often discover that one of the most difficult skills for many supervisors and coaches to learn is the withholding of evaluation in the postconference. Consider what happens to teacher thinking when a supervisor or peer coach says,

> Nice job!
>
> You had a great ratio of higher-level questions in the lesson.
>
> That wasn't too effective.
>
> Here is what you should do.

In most situations, these comments, while well-intentioned, shut down teacher thinking. When our goals for teachers become improvements in instruction thought, we select, just as we do with students, the tools that best promote thinking. These tools include withholding of judgment, open-ended questions, mediative questions, silence, paraphrasing, probing, and summarizing. For example, here are some questions coaches ask that facilitate teacher analysis, cause-effect thinking, inference building, self-evaluation and self-prescription:

> How did you do at meeting your objectives?
>
> What data seems to support that line of thinking?
>
> What do you think the problem is? How might you find out?

When we ask open-ended questions like these, we must be prepared to withhold judgment in our responses.

Why is it so hard for supervisors and peer coaches to refrain from making evaluation? One reason may be because we've lived so long with some clinical supervision models in which the observer's job is to label, analyze, reinforce and teach the teacher. The ability to evaluate and to concisely communicate evaluations are important skills within those models. Furthermore, withholding of judgment would probably be counterproductive in districts which view the act of teaching as labor. In these systems, there are often some prescribed "right" ways to teach. Finally, observer judgement is important in the technical coaching models Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers have developed to transfer training

into classroom application. (See Garmston, "How Administrators Support Peer Coaching," *Educational Leadership*, February 1987 for distinctions between technical and collegial coaching.)

But coaching for teacher thought requires a letting go of some of these old practices. The goal is worth the effort because successful teachers are thoughtful teachers, and they stimulate their students to be thoughtful as well. Teachers who experience Cognitive Coaching enthusiastically report generic improvements in the way they think about instruction, during planning, during teaching, and afterwards. This thinking is linked to changes in the way they teach. Most administrators who provide this kind of coaching report increases in their own learning, renewed joy in professional relationships, and freedom from the artificial role of "I-have-all-the-answers."

6.

LANDSCAPES, MINDSCAPES, AND REFLECTIVE PRACTICE IN SUPERVISION

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It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness, it was the epoch of belief, it was the epoch of incredulity, it was the season of Light, it was the season of Darkness, it was the spring of hope, it was the winter of despair, we had everything before us, we had nothing before us, we were all going direct to Heaven, we were all going direct the other way—in short, the period was so far like the present period, that some of its noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, for good or for evil, in the superlative degree of comparison only.

—Charles Dickens

What is the present landscape in supervision and teaching really like? To what extent do the theories of scholars and prescriptions of practicing supervisors reflect this landscape? How congruent are mindscapes of supervision and teaching with the actual world of teaching practice?

Recently several practicing school supervisors were asked by the editor of their state Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development journal to comment on problems they encountered in practice and their attempts to resolve these problems.[1] The supervisors spoke of supervision as being a "pro forma task," an obstacle to improvement, as being formal and artificial, detached and impersonal, and too hierarchical. They complained that teachers don't think rationally enough, don't plan, are not responsive to criticism, and are unable to see reality. But when proposing solutions to these problems, the supervisors stayed "close to home" by relying on familiar prescriptions for practice and widely accepted theoretical frames of reference. Essentially, they emphasized *doing better* that which they had been doing; *trying harder* to apply the same supervisory rationales and techniques with which they were familiar; and *asserting more intensely* the same basic assumptions, characteristics, and designs that presently exist for their supervisory practice.

The supervisors were correct, I believe, in identifying the shortcomings of present practice. They went astray, however, by relying on the same intellectual frames of reference in seeking to improve practice. Supervision will not improve very much by doing better that which we are now doing. Basic

[1]See forthcoming issue of *Impact on Instructional Improvement* (Albany: New York State Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, in press).

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knowledge perspectives will need to be changed before practices will change enough to make a difference, and this is the difficult reality that we face.

The crux of the problem is that *the dominant mindscapes for supervision do not reflect the reality of supervisory practice*. Mindscapes are implicit mental frames through which supervisory reality and our place in this reality are envisioned. Mindscapes provide us with intellectual and psychological images of the real world and the boundaries and parameters of rationality that help us to make sense of this world. In a very special way, mindscapes are intellectual security blankets on the one hand and road maps through an uncertain world on the other. As road maps they provide the rules, assumptions, images, and practice exemplars that define for us what supervision is and how it should unfold. Mindscapes program our thinking and belief structure as to what should be included in supervision, and thus they possess such features as ideology and dogmatism. They also provide us with frames for deciding what should not be included in our thinking and what practices should not be included. So complete is the programming of a mindscape that its assumptions and practices are automatically accepted and articulated. Mindscapes are not thought about very much, for they are assumed to be true. Thus when a supervisory mindscape does not fit the world of practice, the problem is assumed to be *in that world*. Rarely is the world accepted for what it is and the prevailing mindscapes challenged or indeed abandoned in favor of others.

THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL MINDSCAPES

In this article theoretical and practical perspectives are portrayed as competing supervisory mindscapes. The present supervisory landscape is a creation of the theoretical mindscape. Despite its dominance, the theoretical perspective does not fit the realities of professional practice in supervision. By contrast, the concept of "reflective practice" is proposed as a more practical mindscape—one better able to account for the realities of supervision and to inform professional practice.

At issue is how one should view supervisory inquiry and practice. How should problems be framed? How should inquiry proceed? What is worth studying? And how should defective practice be defined? The theoretical perspective on supervision answers these questions quite differently than does the practical. The theoretical perspective seeks to establish a true rendering of what is. This perspective is measurement-oriented, and within it precision, reliability, and objectivity are presumed to be of most importance.

Let us take, for example, the process of evaluating teachers and teaching. When evaluating from within the theoretical perspective, the following questions are considered to be key: What exactly is going on in this classroom? How can I document this reality objectively and reliably? What is the worth of these findings against some standard? How can I link what the teacher does to these findings with objectivity and confidence? Is the teacher excellent,

good, fair, or poor on given dimensions, and can I back up my assertions with concrete evidence? Despite its quest for truth, the theoretical perspective is able to reveal truth only within the limits of how its subject matter is conceived. Decisions as to how to evaluate teaching, for example, influence the outcome of the evaluation. These decisions include methods used to collect information and standards against which measurements will be compared.

A practical perspective in supervision and evaluation is dynamic and expansive. In contrast to a theoretical perspective, the practical is holistic and seeks to make sense of classroom events, to explain and understand what is going on. Its purpose is not to establish truth in a "traditional scientific" sense, but to be helpful and to encourage meaningful change. Change occurs when events of the world make sense to people. Further, a practical perspective is decision-oriented. As a result of supervision, something is intended to happen to teaching. Instead of seeking to establish truth in some abstract way, a practical perspective seeks to create doubt, raise issues, and discover reality in teaching. Unlike the emphasis on "brute" data,[2] which dominates the theoretical perspective, "sense" data and sensible information are sought. Reality, within the practical perspective, is not something that exists separate from supervisor and teacher but is constructed and created by them. Thus external measurement rods are not viewed as key elements of the evaluation process. Instead, internal matters are important, and the evaluation is constructed from actual classroom events as perceived by students, supervisors, and teachers.

MINDSCAPES, METAPHORS, AND ACTION

Theoretical and practical mindscapes are expressed through the language systems we use, which, in turn, reinforce our mindscapes. A person's view of supervision and evaluation does not exist separate from her or his view of teaching, the nature of power and authority, and how knowledge in supervision is generated and used. Views of supervision and evaluation are typically revealed in the language systems that supervisors use. Language frames our thinking by focusing attention on some aspects of a supervisory problem and by excluding others.

Metaphors are powerful exemplars of language, which influence the framing of supervisory problems. Framing is a defining process and thus, through the use of metaphor, problems are defined in a particular way. Other metaphors would define these very same problems differently. Problem reality is little more than a function of this framing process. Framing reinforces the supervisory mindscapes of the framer and influences the creation of this scape in the minds of others. Once a problem is framed within a given supervisory mindscape, those involved in analyzing this problem are *locked* into a partic-

[2]Charles Taylor, "Interpretation and the Sciences of Man," *The Review of Metaphysics* 25 (September 1981): 3–51.

ular way of thinking and *forced* into a particular course of action. This thinking and action is then *justified* in terms of the original mindscape. As Greenfield reminds us, "Language is Power. It literally makes reality appear and disappear. Those who control language control thought—and thereby themselves and others. We build categories to dominate the world and its organization."[3]

How one views teaching influences her or his supervisory mindscape. Within the theoretical perspective, the pipeline or conduit metaphor is often used to depict teaching. "Instructional delivery systems" are conceived as pipelines through which knowledge and information must travel.[4] Student outcomes are at one end of this line, teaching inputs at the other end. Care must be taken to keep this instructional pipeline flowing smoothly; obstructions in the line must be eliminated; and the line itself must be shaped to avoid blockage kinks. Inputs must be properly sized to fit the pipeline, and a system of monitoring must be established to ensure easy movement of this input through the line. Student outcomes need to be carefully checked to ensure that they fit input intents. Improvements need to be made in the composition and arrangement of the pipeline itself in an effort to maximize even further student outcomes at lowest cost, and so on.

Conceiving of teaching as an instructional design system pipeline provides a highly instrumental view that frames and shapes the way schooling is and is not to be understood. Students are cast into receptive roles. Persons at the input end of the pipeline make calculated decisions about teaching and learning. The pipeline itself is viewed in a mechanical sense. It is hard not to conceive of teaching and learning in another way—we become trapped by the mindscape from which the pipeline metaphor emerges, and it programs our thinking and actions. Once this teaching mindscape is fixed, it determines the way supervision is likely to occur.

Madeline Hunter's work provides a fairly clear-cut *example* of how mindscapes program thinking and determine action. She prescribes a specific method of supervision, which stems from her conception of teaching and learning. She views teaching and learning as an instructional delivery system, and the pipeline metaphor fits her mindscape very well. Consider the highly instrumental language she uses to describe teaching and learning and particularly the pipeline imagery projected:

> Teaching, as it is used in this chapter, is defined as the constant stream of professional decisions that affect the probability of learning. Only recently, however, has research in learning been translated into cause-effect relationships of use to teachers. . . .
>
> Teaching involves factor-analyzing those goals into dependent sequences of learning, diagnosing students to determine what each has achieved in that sequence, and employing psychological principles that contribute to the speed and effectiveness with which each student acquires new learnings in these sequences. . . .

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[3]Thomas B. Greenfield, "Against Group Mind: An Anarchistic Theory of Educaton," *McGill Journal of Education* 17 (Winter 1982): 8.

[4]Ernest R. House, "How We Think About Evaluation," in *Philosophy of Education*, ed. Ernest R. House (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983).

> Teaching is an applied science derived from research and human learning and human behavior: an applied science that utilizes the findings of psychology, neurology, sociology and anthropology. . . .
>
> The science of teaching is based on cause-effect relationships existing in three categories of decisions that all teachers make. . . .
>
> The teacher determines the vocabulary loading and idea density that each student is able to handle successfully and the degree of imbedding or surfacing of the information that is necessary to make its location challenging but visible to the learner. . . .
>
> . . . the teacher must ascertain whether the learning behavior "input system" being utilized is working for that student. If it isn't working another learning behavior needs to be added or substituted for the less successful one. . . .
>
> . . . the teacher must have task-analyzed the final objective to identify knowledge and skills that need to be acquired. Only then can the input phase of the lesson be designed so that a successful outcome becomes predictable. . . .
>
> Students practice their new knowledge or skill under *direct teacher supervision*. New learning is like wet cement; it is easily damaged. An error at the beginning of learning can easily "set" so that it is harder to eradicate than had it been eradicated immediately. . . .[5]

Accepting Hunter's teaching and learning mindscape influences the way supervision is likely to unfold. An interaction exists between one's view of teaching and learning and of supervision and evaluation with each framing and influencing the other.

Hunter states, for example, "Most principals were effective teachers, but their skills may have been intuitive and therefore inarticulate."[6] To remedy this problem and to set the stage for implementation of the prescribed supervisory strategy, she maintains that principals (supervisors) must possess a certain and common body of knowledge, essentially the nuts and bolts of her mindscape for teaching and learning.

THE NATURE OF KNOWLEDGE IN SUPERVISION

One's view of the nature of knowledge, how it is generated and how it is used in practice, is an additional determiner of one's supervisory mindscape. Within the theoretical mindscape it is assumed that supervisory knowledge

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[5]Madeline Hunter, "Knowing, Teaching, Supervising," in *Using What We Know About Teaching*, 1984 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, ed. Philip L. Hosford (Alexandria, Va.: ASCD, 1984), pp. 169–192.

[6]Ibid., p. 184. This point illustrates the power of mindscapes and accompanying metaphors in influencing thought. *Inarticulate*, for example, carries with it a negative connotation. Webster's Dictionary uses the following words and phrases in defining inarticulate: "incapable of giving coherent or effective expression; having no distinct body segments; lacking a hinge (referring to a brachiophod shell)." Hunter could have chosen a word such as *tacit*, which carries with it an artistic quality, a positive connotation. Webster's defining phrases for tacit include: "expressed or carried on without words or speech; implied or indicated but not actually expressed." Choosing the word inarticulate frames our thinking in a certain direction, one more in accord with Hunter's view of teaching and learning. This view comprises the mindscape that governs and frames her thinking. In the next sentence, Hunter condemns intuition by stating that it is "sterile," a further example of the power of language in framing thought and shaping meaning.

shares characteristics common to *all* scientific knowledge. This assumption is consistent with Comte's search for a "unity of science,"[7] which would treat social objects and the cultural world in the same way physical objects are treated in the natural sciences. Inquiry in the social world, according to the "unity of science" view, would exclude prior knowledge, implicit knowledge, and tacit knowing (intuition of and personal meanings for supervisors, teachers, and students); require absolute separation between the knower (supervisor or teacher) and the object known (teaching); assume that social objects and social reality (such as teaching), like physical objects and physical reality, have an existence independent of the observer; require that social inquiry (supervision and evaluation) be a neutral activity, an objective process void of bias; emphasize what is (the facts of teaching) rather than what should be; require that teaching, supervision, and evaluation develop their own languages (as contrasted with lay persons' vernacular in order to adequately and universally discuss social reality; and require the development of unique methods of inquiry (as contrasted from common sense or everyday approaches to knowing) in order to discover true reality.

Knowledge itself within the theoretical perspective is hierarchical and therefore generated downward in the form of a linear chain. This chain and its relationship to Hunter's model of teaching and supervision is depicted in Figure 1.

Within the theoretical perspective supervision is viewed as an "applied science."[8] This phrase is itself a metaphor that frames our thinking and shapes our actions. Applied science flows from basic science as embodied in key underlying disciplines such as psychology, neurology, sociology, and anthropology, according to Hunter, and uses this scientific knowledge to build practice models and standard practice treatments. At the bottom of this hierarchy (perhaps a metaphor suggesting that it is the least important part of the knowledge hierarchy?) is a professional practice component whereby knowledge flowing from the top is applied in performing services to clients.

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[7]George Simpson, *Auguste Comte: Sire of Sociology* (New York: Crowell, 1969). See John K. Smith, "Quantitative Versus Interpretive: The Problem of Conducting Social Inquiry," in *Philosophy of Evaluation*, ed. Ernest R. House (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1983).

[8]A number of individuals have urged that supervision and teaching be viewed as more artistic than scientific. See Daniel C. Lortie, *School Teacher: A Sociological Study* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975); Philip Jackson, *Life in Classrooms* (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1968); Elliot W. Eisner, *The Educational Imagination*, 2nd ed. (New York: Macmillan, 1985). The artistic metaphor represents an entirely different mindscape of teaching and supervision, one that frames issues of importance and decisions and actions of professionals into lanes quite different than does the theoretical mindscape. Artistic mindscapes and accompanying metaphors work similarly to other mindscapes by framing thinking about teaching and learning and thus programming action. Educational mindscapes create professional reality, and realities for persons differ as their mindscapes differ. The worth of a particular supervisory reality is determined by its usefulness in reflecting the world of teachers and their work, in promoting understanding of this world, and in improving professional practice.

Figure 1.
The Hierarchy of Knowledge Within the Theoretical Perspective

Creation of knowledge through research	Teaching effectiveness research
↓	↓
to build models of practice	the Hunter model
↓	↓
from which prescriptions are generated	three basic ideas, seven basic steps, six basic types
↓	↓
to be communicated to professionals for use in practice.	to be learned and universally applied in supervision and evaluation.

THE NATURE OF PRACTICE IN SUPERVISION

I began with the assertion that the present theoretical basis (mindscape) for supervision provides an unrealistic view of supervision and for this reason may not be useful for guiding practice. Within this mindscape supervision and evaluation are viewed as logical processes that seek to establish objective truth. They rely heavily on action strategies based on universal principles, linear thinking, and logical analysis. They assume that the worlds of supervision and evaluation are characterized by stability and uniformity of problems. Given these conditions, they seek to provide standard practice prescriptions (instructions, steps, treatments, processes) to supervisors.

In practice, supervision and evaluation differ markedly from this theoretical view. Patterns of practice are actually characterized by a great deal of uncertainty, instability, complexity, and variety. Value conflicts and uniqueness are accepted aspects of educational settings. These characteristics are, according to Schon, perceived as central to the world of professional practice in all of the major professions (medicine, engineering, management, education). And because of these characteristics, Schon concludes, "Professional knowledge is mismatched to the changing characteristics of the situations of practice."[9] Though one may be comfortable in viewing supervision as a logical process of problem solving, a more accurate view may be as a process of "managing messes."[10]

In reality, the task of the supervisor is to make sense of messy situations by increasing understanding and discovering and communicating meaning. Since situations of practice are characterized by unique events, uniform answers to problems are not likely to be helpful. Since teachers, supervisors, and students bring to the classroom beliefs, assumptions, values, opinions, preferences, and predispositions, objective and value-free supervisory strategies are not likely to address issues of importance. Since uncertainty and com-

[9]Donald Schon, *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action* (New York: Basic Books, 1983), p. 14.

[10]Ibid., p. 16.

plexity are normal aspects in the process of teaching, intuition becomes necessary to fill in between the gaps of what can be specified as known. Since reality in practice does not exist separate from persons involved in the process of teaching and supervising, knowing cannot be separated from what is to be known. Since evaluation reality is linked to the observer and to decisions she or he makes about methods of observation, it is constructed as an artifact of the situation. Since supervisory messes are context bound and situationally determined, the language of actual classroom life and actual teaching events will be listened to rather than the theoretical language or language that may be inherent in-rating scales and other measurement devices.

THE CLINICAL MIND IN SUPERVISION AND TEACHING

The crux of the mismatch between professional knowledge perceived as theoretical and the actual context and practice of supervision is that teachers operate in a *clinical* rather than theoretical mode.

Don Hogben, for example, maintains that teachers and other professional practitioners view their work quite differently than do theoreticians or researchers. They have, he concludes, a different world view. He draws his conclusions from Freidson's extensive examination of the profession of medicine and accepts for teachers Freidson's concept of "clinical mentality." That is, professionals are possessed by a clinical mentality that provides them with a mindscape of work at odds with the theoretical mindscape.[11]

In comparing clinically minded medical professionals with medical researchers and theoreticians, Freidson, according to Hogben, identifies four major differences. First, *professionals aim at action* not at knowledge. *Doing something, indeed anything, is always preferable to doing nothing.* As they practice, teachers and supervisors are more likely to take action when faced with a problem they don't understand very well than to wait for theory and research to unravel the problem. They prefer action over inaction even when such action has little chance of success. In this action process, supervisors and teachers are more likely to seek *useful* than truthful knowledge and to engage in a process of understanding-seeking rather than truth-seeking. Useful knowledge and increased understanding are prized because they support action.

Suggesting that useful knowledge is more important than truthful knowledge requires some explanation. Professionals view themselves as "truth-makers" rather than "truth-seekers." As Noblit explains, truth-makers are engaged in "originative" acts as they create the social worlds within which they live. Truth-seekers, on the other hand, are about the business of finding that which already exists. Noblit quotes Shackle as follows:

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[11]Donald Hogben, "The Clinical Mind: Some Implications for Educational Research and Teacher Training" (Urbana-Champaign: Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois, undated). See Eliot Freidson, *Profession of Medicine: A Study of the Sociology of Applied Knowledge* (New York: Dodd Mead, 1972).

There are truth-seekers and truth-makers. On the one hand, the pure scientist deems himself to be typically faced with a problem which has one right answer. His business is, in the map-maker's language, to get a fix on that problem, to take bearings from opposite ends of a base-line and plot them to converge upon the solution, the truth to-be-found. On the other hand, the poet-architect-adventurer sees before him a landscape inexhaustibly rich in suggestions and materials for making things, for making works of literature or art or technology, for making policies and history itself, or perhaps for making the complex, delicate, existential system called a business."[12]

Certainly "truth" does exist and it is of great interest to professionals, when they can use it, as a basis for determining courses of action. Within the medical specialty of ophthalmology, as an example, it is estimated that 80 percent of the cases of patient complaints do not fall into the available standard categories of diagnosis or treatment. Physicians are grateful for occasions when standard treatment repertoires *do* fit the problems they face, but they must take action nonetheless in the vast majority of other cases. By taking action they seek to make sense of the problems they face and to *create knowledge in use*. Their clinical mentality casts them into the role of "truth-maker" rather than "truth-finder" or applier of known truths. Understanding and knowledge usefulness are important in truth-making.

A truth-seeking approach to supervision seeks to establish and define a single concept of "good" teaching to be used as a standard for developing and applying measurement rods to determine the extent to which good teaching exists in various settings of interest. Despite exaggerated claims to the contrary, a single concept of good teaching cannot be established empirically, and such a concept cannot exist in an absolute sense.[13] Indeed different versions of good teaching exist, each depending upon a different world view, different interests, and different purposes. It is possible to agree on a version of good teaching. This agreement would not depend so much on facts or empirically established reality but upon a process of justification. Justification, in turn, is a product of our values and interests.

The second characteristic of the clinical mind, which Freidson found in his comparison of medical practitioners with researchers and theoreticians, was that professionals need to believe in what they are doing as they practice. They need to believe that professional action does more good than harm and that they are effective in solving problems and in serving clients. Teachers, Hogben concludes, "must strongly believe in what they are doing, because their daily practices and decisions are rarely followed by pupil improvement

[12]George W. Noblit, "The Prospects of an Applied Ethnography for Education: A Sociology of Knowledge Interpretation," *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis* 6 (Spring 1984): 97. See G. L. S. Schackle, "Policy, Poetry, and Success," *The Economic Journal* 76 (December 1966): 767.

[13]Establishing a single concept of "good" teaching and empirically validating a particular teaching technique (or series of techniques) are not the same. Techniques masterfully articulated but misapplied in a given situation or for a given purpose would, in reality, be examples of "bad" teaching.

which can be tied unequivocably to those practices and decisions."[14] This comment applies as well to supervisors, for they too have precious little with which they can judge their effectiveness. Theoretical mindscapes encourage detachment and healthy skepticism. By contrast, the world of practice is characterized by close attachment and a commitment to one's course of action.

The third characteristic identified by Freidson is the heavy reliance of professionals on their own firsthand experience and on the experience of other professionals with whom they work in similar settings. They rely more on results than theory, and trust their own accumulated experiences in making decisions about practice than they do abstract principles. In describing teachers Hogben points out that "they may adopt the rhetoric and the slogans emanating from educational psychology, sociology and the rest as it suits them, but their day-to-day practice often runs counter to theoretical dictates."[15] It is not surprising, therefore, that researchers such as Emil Haller and Charles Keenan found that teachers rely primarily on other teachers as sources of new ideas and for help in solving existing problems. Further, "other teachers" were viewed as the most reliable sources of help and new ideas.[16]

The final difference revealed by Freidson's comparison, according to Hogben, is that ". . . the practitioner is very prone to emphasize the idea of *indeterminancy* or uncertainty, not the idea of regularity of lawful, scientific behavior,"[17] which characterizes the theoretical mindscape. The issue may be less whether professionals want to emphasize uncertainty than that they must. In medicine, for example, a recent review of the research reveals that only about 15 percent of medical procedures in common use are validated by scientific studies.[18] The figure in education would be even less. How incongruous it would be to ignore the complexities of the problems faced in schools and the infallibility of the scientific base for teaching by abandoning indeterminancy and uncertainty in favor of three major decisions, seven major steps, and six major types, or of other "scientific" prescriptions that seek "regularity" and "lawfulness" in practice.

In sum, "the clinical mind stresses action rather than knowledge; belief in action; reliance on personal experience and 'results,' rather than on theory,

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[14]Donald Hogben, "The Clinical Mind: Some Implications for Educational Research and Teacher Training" (Urbana-Champaign: Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois, undated), p. 2.

[15]Ibid.

[16]Emil Haller, *Strategies for Change* (Toronto: Department of Educational Administration, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1968); Charles Keenan, "Channels for Change: A Survey of Teachers in Chicago Elementary Schools" (doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1974).

[17]Donald Hogben, "The Clinical Mind: Some Implications for Educational Research and Teacher Training" (Urbana-Champaign: Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois, undated), p. 2.

[18]Stanley J. Gross, "On Contrasting Rates of Diffusion of Professional Knowledge: A Response to McGuire and Tyler," in *Using What We Know About Teaching*, 1984 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, ed. Philip L. Hosford (Alexandria, Va.: ASCD, 1984), p. 27.

abstract principles or 'book knowledge.' And, finally, there is an emphasis on indeterminancy rather than a commitment to the idea of regularity of behavior."[19] These characteristics of the clinical mind, taken together with the reality that patterns of practice are characterized by a great deal of uncertainty, instability, and complexity, and the reality that value conflicts and uniqueness are accepted aspects of educational settings suggest that theoretical mindscapes of of supervision and teaching do not adequately reflect the condition of practice. They do not yield enough useful knowledge to professionals, and, when conceived as the basis for an applied science of supervision and teaching, they are weak constructs for the improvement of practice.

SUPERVISION AS REFLECTION-IN-ACTION

Practical mindscapes have the potential for yielding professional knowledge, which promotes understanding, is useful in solving problems, and guides professional action. Unlike theoretical knowledge, which emerges from a downward flow, professional knowledge is *created in use* as professionals, faced with ill-defined, unique, and constantly changing problems, decide courses of action.

Ralph Tyler maintains that researchers don't have a full understanding of the nature of professional knowledge in education. He states:

> Researchers and many academics also misunderstand educational practices. The practice of every profession evolves informally, and professional procedures are not generally derived form a systematic design based on research finding. Professional practice has largely developed through trial and error and intuitive efforts. Practitioners, over the years, discover procedures that appear to work and others that fail. The professional practice of teaching, as well as that of law, medicine, and theology, is largely a product of the experience of practitioners, particularly those who are more creative, inventive, and observant than the average.[20]

Scientific studies in the various professions are important. But science, according to Tyler, "explains phenomenon, it does not produce practices." Professionals rely heavily on *informed* intuition as they create knowledge in use. Intuition is informed by theoretical knowledge on the one hand and by interacting with the context of practice on the other. When teachers use informed intuition, they are engaging in reflective practice. When supervisors use informed intuition, they too are engaging in reflective practice. Knowing is in the action itself, and reflective professionals (teachers and supervisors) become students of their practice. They research the context and experiment with different courses of action. As Schon suggests:

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[19]Donald Hogben, "The Clinical Mind: Some Implications for Educational Research and Teacher Training" (Urbana-Champaign: Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois, undated), p. 11.

[20]Quoted by Philip L. Hosford, "Introduction: The Problem, Its Difficulties, and Our Approaches," in *Using What We Know About Teaching*, 1984 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, ed. Philip L. Hosford (Alexandria, Va.: ASCD, 1984), p. 9.

They may ask themselves, for example, "What features do I notice when I recognize this thing? What are the criteria by which I make this judgment? What procedures am I enacting when I perform this skill? How am I framing the problem that I'm trying to solve?" Usually, reflection on knowing-in-action goes together with reflection on the stuff at hand. There is some puzzling, or troubling, or interesting phenomenon with which the individual is trying to deal. As he tries to make sense of it, he also reflects on the understandings which have been implicit in his action, understandings which he surfaces, criticizes, re-structures, and embodies in further action.

It is this entire process of reflection-in-action which is central to the "art" by which practitioners sometimes deal well with situations of uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and value conflict.[21]

To Schon, reflection-in-action involves "on-the-spot surfacing, criticizing, re-structuring, and testing of intuitive understandings of experienced phenomena; often, it takes the form of a reflective conversation with the situation."[22] Reflection-in-action captures the clinical mind at work as teachers plan lessons, analyze problems, and decide on courses of action in teaching. Reflection-in-action captures, as well, the supervisor at work as she or he makes judgments in an attempt to manage a very messy work context. What is missing in both cases is *reflection on the process of reflection-in-action*.

Theoretical mindscapes reflect the concept of applied science, and this concept in practice requires far less reflection-in-action than first seems apparent. In applied science, problems are diagnosed for fit with standard practice treatments, and the "correct" one is selected for application. In reflective practice, knowledge is created in use as professionals explore and experiment. They rely less on standard treatments and more on informed intuition to create tailored "treatments."

With respect to supervisory practice as an applied science, teachers are expected to place themselves in the hands of a supervisor and rely on this person's wisdom in properly analyzing teaching problems and prescribing treatments for improvement. Supervision as reflective practice, however, requires that teachers join supervisors in trying to make sense of complex situations, in sharing perceptions, and in arriving at "treatments" and other courses of action together. The teacher is not dependent upon the supervisor. Instead, the supervisor needs the teacher's involvement in order to fully understand what is going on.

Applied science in supervision seeks to establish a body of *artificial* professional intelligence. Theoretical knowledge would be the key aspect of such intelligence. Supervisors would merely have to "diagnose" problems they face and draw from this intelligence standard treatments to apply. By contrast, reflective practice seeks to establish *augmented* professional intel-

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[21]Donald Schon, *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action* (New York: Basic Books, 1983), p. 50.

[22]Donald Schon, "Leadership as Reflection in Action," in *Leadership and Organizational Cultures*, eds. Thomas J. Sergiovanni and John E. Corbally (Urbana-Champaign: University of Illinois Press, 1984), p. 42.

ligence. Supervisors themselves would be key aspects of this intelligence, for it would not stand apart as an abstract body of theoretical knowledge. Augmented professional intelligence serves to inform the intuitions of supervisors as they practice. As this process unfolds, practical knowledge is created in use as unique "treatments" are developed, applied, refined, and shared with other supervisors.

The concept of reflective practice in supervision poses many other issues not examined in this article. The mindscape issue, however, is fundamental. Theoretical mindscapes of supervision favor abstract views and deterministic prescriptions that do not reflect the actual world of supervision and therefore are not very useful in and of themselves. The question is, do we persist in pursuing and refining theoretical mindscapes, or do we abandon them in favor of more practical and useful ones? Choosing the latter course has its challenges and will require us to "shake loose" from a comfortable present. But if we want to develop a useful practice of supervision, then this is the course we must follow. I choose "the spring of hope" over "the winter of despair."

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Addresses one of the most important concerns of contemporary administrative theory and practice—the culture and quality of administrative leadership and its crucial importance to organizational effectiveness. Focusing on public organizations, the editors use an interdisciplinary approach that will be especially useful for scholars and administrators and supervisors in education. Contributors are *illuminati* in the fields of education, political science, sociology, and business.

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